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in the Secondary School

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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1953-54

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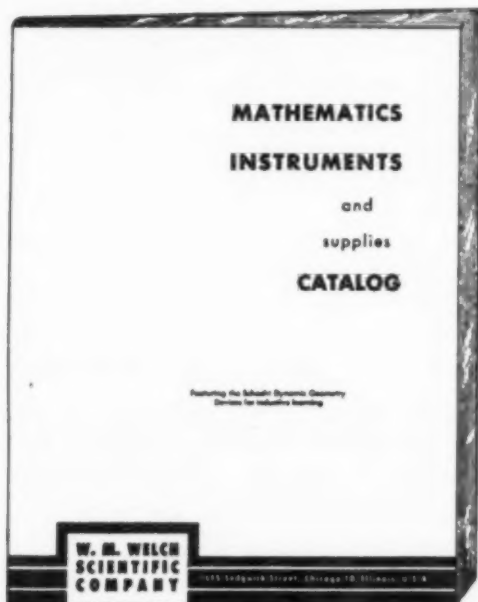




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Public Secondary Education in Peru

CHESTER W. WOOD

INTRODUCTION

PERU is a country of abrupt and extreme contrasts in its topography, climate, economic conditions, density of population, and cultural levels. A republic located on the Pacific coast of South America, Peru embraces an area of over 482,000 square miles. This country, the third largest in South America, would cover an area larger than that included in the eight states of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio. The population in 1952 was estimated to be in excess of eight million or somewhat larger than Texas or Ohio.

The Andes Mountains, which reach heights of over 20,000 feet above sea level, divide the country longitudinally into three well-defined and sharply contrasting regions: the coastal zone, which is 50 to 100 miles wide by over 1,400 miles long; the mountainous areas called the *sierra*; and beyond the *sierra*, heavily forested slopes which lead to the vast low-lying Amazonian jungle or *montana*. The greatest development has taken place in the coastal and *sierra* regions. The jungle, with its tropical climate, remains comparatively undeveloped.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The secondary school or "media" includes Peruvian grades six through ten. Because of difference in terminology in the elementary division, media one corresponds in general to the United States seventh grade and media five is comparable to the junior year in a North American high school.

The institutions themselves are called *colegios*. The larger *colegios* may have from two to eight sections in each grade of the media. Each section is scheduled as a unit, remaining in the same room during the school day while the professors rotate at the close of each period.

The secondary system in 1952, enrolled 76,105 pupils which represents slightly less than ten per cent of the youth of high-school age. While most secondary schools are for one sex only, there are thirty-three co-educational high schools located primarily in the smaller cities of Peru. The over-all operation is featured by a high degree of fragmentation including academic high schools for boys, academic high schools for girls, industrial institutes for

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girls, industrial institutes for boys, commercial schools divided according to sex, and agricultural schools which admit boys only. General Mendoza, Minister of Education from 1948 to 1953, endeavored to modify this traditional and expensive plan of disconnected and independent schools by instituting the new comprehensive *Grandes Unidades Escolares*. These separate "great school units" for boys and girls are being built in the various population centers. Eleven of these schools were in operation in 1952 and twelve more were under construction.

While each of these great school units is administered by a single director, the academic, technical, commercial, and agricultural departments operate as distinct and rather autonomous sections under a separate *jefe*, or chief.

The government of Peru has encouraged individual and group interests to help carry the educational load in the country. As a result of this policy, religious (Catholic, Methodist, and Jewish) and national (British, United States, and Italian) groups have organized corporations in order to charter schools. Qualified private citizens also have inaugurated educational enterprises. The number of private high schools, *colegios particulares*, in the academic division now exceeds the number of *colegios nacionales*, as may be seen in Table 1. In 1952 there were 187 private high schools as compared to 100 national high schools.

However, the total enrollment of 45,259 in the public institutions was considerably more than the 30,846 listed under the privately controlled category. The greatest contribution of non-governmental educational effort has been made in the field of the education of young women. Almost half of the girls who attend secondary schools in Peru go to private institutions.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS:
1948 AND 1952.

<i>Schools, Teachers, and Pupils</i>	1948	1952
High Schools	217	287
National	103	100
Private	114	187
Teachers	4,251	4,766
National	2,515	2,277
Private	1,736	2,489
Pupils	58,074	76,105
National	37,256	45,259
Private	20,818	30,846

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

The national program of studies reflects an accumulation of Spanish, French, British, and North American influences. Required subjects in the National Course of Study amount to thirty hours a week in the academic division although additional courses in many academic *colegios* raise this total to thirty-eight or forty. Forty-two hours per week are required in the technical divisions as is shown in Table 2. The usual school day outside of Lima is from 8:00 to 12:00 A. M. and from 2:00 to 5:00 P. M. Classes are large, often numbering fifty or sixty pupils. Each pupil carries from eleven to fifteen subjects in his weekly schedule of classes. There are no electives and very few free periods. (see Table 2)

Teaching procedures in Peruvian secondary schools place great emphasis on memorization and rote learning. Each pupil has one or more notebooks for each subject into which much of the material read from the text, or dictated by the teacher, is copied. The *carpeta de trabajo*, a decorated notebook designed to show the pupil's original written course work for the year, receives a good deal of time and attention. The shortage of textbooks tends to perpetuate this practice.

The grading procedure in Peru has traditionally followed a range of 1 to 20, with a mark of 11 as passing. Recently in the *Grandes Unidades Escolares* a 1 to 100 percentage system has been inaugurated with 55 as the passing average. The two plans now operate side by side during a period in which the older system is gradually being replaced by the newer one.

The bimester is a two-month interval into which the school year is divided as a basis for keeping records and reporting grades. The following plan is typical of marking practices in Peruvian secondary schools. At the end of each bimester the pupil is given two grades: (1) the class mark based on (a) oral work, (b) exploratory tests, and (c) *carpeta de trabajo*; and (2) the mark on the bimester test. The final grade for the year in each course is arrived at by adding the average of the four class marks to the average of the five test marks (the final test is counted twice) and dividing by two.

Failure rates are high, especially during the first two years of the media. In science and mathematics, sectional records sometimes show that fifty to sixty per cent of the pupils received less than a passing mark. It is not uncommon for one third of the entering class to fail two or more subjects and this fraction occasionally approaches one half. Through a system of March (summer) examinations, pupils who were rated *desaprobado* (failing) at the end of the regular school year are given another opportunity to establish credit in the subjects they did not pass. According to national policy, pupils who fail more than three courses are required to repeat the entire year of work. Due in part to the high incidence of failure, about three fourths of the pupils who enroll in the secondary schools drop out before reaching the fifth media.

TABLE 2.—PLANS OF STUDY FOR COMMON SECONDARY EDUCATION AND TECHNICAL SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR BOYS

Technical Secondary Education						Common Secondary Education					
Courses	Year					Courses	Year				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
Mathematics	3	4	3	3	3	Arithmetic	4				
						Algebra		4	4		
						Geometry				4	
						Space Geometry and Trigonometry					4
Spanish	2	2	2			Spanish	4	4	3		
						Literature				3	2
General Geography and Geography of Peru....	2	2				Geography	3	3	3		
History of Peru	2	2				History of Peru	3	3	3	3	2
Universal History			2	2		Universal History	2	2	2	2	
English	2	2	2	2	2	English	3	3	3	3	3
Moral and Religious Education	1	1	1	1	1	Moral and Religious Education	1	1	1	1	1
Pre-military Instruction	2	2	2	2	2	Pre-military Instruction	2	2	2	2	2
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2
Civic Education					1	Civic Education					1
Drawing	4	3	3			Drawing	1	1	1		
Drafting				3	3	Technical Introduction	2	2	2		
Basic Science	2	2				Botany	2				
Mounting					3	Zoology		2			
Physics		2	2			Physiology, Anatomy and Hygiene			3		
Chemistry			3			Physics				4	4
						Inorganic Chemistry				3	
Technology	2	2	2	2		Organic Chemistry					3
Material Resistance				2	2						
Industrial Bookkeeping....					2						
Political Economy			2			Political Economy					3
Trade Basic Course		2	3	3							
Shop Organ. and Admin..					2						
Labor Legislation					1						
Shops	18	18	16	16	15	Music and Song	1	1	1		
						Psychology				3	
						Logic and Ethics					3
Totals	42	42	42	42	42		30	30	30	30	30

Beginning in April, four bimesters of eight or nine weeks each allow the *colegios* to close for "summer" vacation late in December. Most of the summer vacation in Peru is during the months of January, February, and March.

Attendance and discipline are almost invariably in the hands of a corps of school inspectors. Each inspector is responsible for checking attendance in one or more sections at morning and afternoon "line up time" before the pupils march into the building. A record of absences and tardinesses is maintained in the section register which is kept in the classroom on the teacher's desk so as to be available for reference by each succeeding professor.

Excuses for absences are usually handled by the chief inspector. In the majority of schools, written notes are not accepted and parents must call in person to make explanation after a son or daughter has failed to attend classes. Excessive absence or tardiness may result in a pupil being denied permission to take the final examinations.

In the field of conduct and discipline, the inspectors often use a technique in which a pupil starts each bimester with an allocation of 100 citizenship points. On the basis of a carefully developed and publicized scale, points are deducted for various offenses. However, points may be won for especially meritorious behavior. When a pupil goes below fifty points, or in the event he becomes involved in a serious disciplinary problem, the parents are notified. This system is compulsory in the national schools, but is optional in the private schools.

A special citizenship summary is included with the academic record on the bimester report to parents. As a matter of routine, some *colegios* require the father or mother to come to the school in order to see and sign the report card rather than allowing this report to be carried home by the pupil. The pupil's conduct record and academic achievement are two separate reports.

Uniforms are worn as a matter of custom in all Peruvian *colegios*. The required clothing is simple and inexpensive in the national schools, but the distinctive dress which must be purchased by pupils in the private institutions is much more expensive. A typical girl in a private school will spend \$40 for one regular uniform and at least \$20 for the special white uniform which is worn on the days when grades are issued and on other important occasions.

COST OF EDUCATION

Public elementary and secondary education in Peru is free: elementary, by provisions in the Constitution; secondary, by virtue of a law passed in 1946. However, on the secondary level, a pupil must get a certain score on a test to qualify for a free education. Pupils who are below this score must pay a small fee to attend high school. Others who fall below a minimum are not permitted to attend. This test is administered in March, shortly before the opening of school, and is given only once. Applicants who miss this date are not given another opportunity to write.

Tuition charges tend to make the Peruvian secondary schools selective from an economic as well as an academic viewpoint. It costs between \$20 and \$25 a year, exclusive of uniform, to send a pupil to a national high school. In the *colegios nacionales* the rates in 1952 were as follows:

TABLE 3.—RATES IN THE NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

<i>Types of Fees</i>	<i>Lima and Callao per Year</i>	<i>Departments per Year</i>	<i>Provinces per Year</i>
Registration	U. S. \$ 2.00	\$ 1.67	\$ 1.67
Instruction	20.00	16.70	16.70
Promotion Examination	2.67	2.00	2.00
Activities Fees			
Certificate	0.46	0.46	0.46
Totals	U. S. \$25.13	\$20.83	\$20.83

Representative fees paid by pupils who attend private secondary schools are as follows:

TABLE 4.—RATES IN THE PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

<i>Types of Fees</i>	<i>Lima and Callao per Year</i>	<i>Departments per Year</i>	<i>Provinces per Year</i>
Registration	U. S. \$ 5.32	\$ 1.67	\$ 1.67
Instruction	56.67	23.33	20.00
Promotion Examination	1.00	0.80	0.60
Certificate	0.67	0.67	0.67
Totals	U. S. \$ 63.66	\$26.47	\$22.94

High-school buildings in Peru show an extreme range of adequacy varying from windowless huts with dirt floors, adobe walls, and cane roofs to the finest, most modern structures. Library facilities are non-existent in most *colegios* and inadequate even in the newest units. A start is being made with respect to purchasing science laboratory and classroom teaching equipment.

Most of the larger *colegios* endeavor to supply board and room for from twenty to eighty non-resident pupils. These *internos* provide their own mattresses and blankets and sleep on metal cots which are usually lined up in long rows along the walls of a single large room. Food is supplied in the school dining hall. Non-resident pupils not quartered on the school premises often rent a room in the community.

Guidance services have been introduced through the organization of the *psico-pedagogic* departments in the Great School Units (*Grandes Unidades Escolares*). The expansion of these facilities and the inauguration of guidance and counseling centers in an increasing number of schools is one of the objectives of the ministry of education.

The long school day and the classical academic emphasis in the curriculum have served to delay the development of extracurricular activities. While some excellent work in music and dramatics is being done in isolated instances, student government and school clubs are rarely found in Peruvian *colegios*. Among the boys' schools, interscholastic sports have received considerable attention, particularly in Lima and Arequipa. In general, informal education is a comparatively undeveloped field.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Though Peru's economy is primarily agrarian, it has considerable industrial possibilities. The importance of industrial education was recognized in the national education plan of 1950. Provision was made for the construction of a number of new schools on the secondary level. In addition to providing instruction in regular academic courses, the new Central School Units also include technical education in commercial, industrial, and agricultural courses in accordance with the special requirements of each region. These new buildings have been equipped with furniture and physics and chemistry laboratories as well as instructional materials and implements.

Technical education occupies a prominent position in the current program of public education. It is believed necessary to develop mechanics in many technical fields. The objectives of the industrial schools are focused in the direction of the growing industrial demands of the country.

In the period from 1948 to 1952, the capacity of industrial schools has been doubled, the number of teachers has grown from 927 to 1,662 and the number of pupils has increased from 9,095 to 17,846 or nearly 90 per cent. During this same period the budget has increased nearly 120 per cent, from S/o.8,112,426 (\$540,830) to S/o.18,200,000 (\$1,213,333).

For the first time in the educational history of Peru, the number of schools of technical education (industrial, agricultural, and commercial) exceeds the number of academic schools of secondary education. As compared with 112 technical institutes in 1952, there were only 100 national schools in operation. This number includes 30 schools of commercial subjects; 22, agricultural; 25 women's industrial schools; 34 industrial schools for boys; and one normal school. Besides these government schools, there are a number of private institutions. The number of pupils enrolled in these two kinds of institutes was as follows:

TABLE 5.—NUMBER OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS

<i>Type of School</i>	<i>Government</i>	<i>Private</i>
Industrial Institutes for Women	7,033	2,300
Agricultural Institutes	1,580	
Industrial Institutes for Men	4,742	
Commercial Institutes	4,491	2,256
Totals	17,846	4,556

In 1948 the industrial schools for women had an enrollment of 3,900 pupils while in 1952 they reached 7,033. In 1948 there were 2,700 pupils in the industrial institutes for men, as compared with 4,742 in 1952. There were 1,291 pupils in the commercial institutes in 1948 and in 1952 the enrollment had increased to 4,491. Pupils enrolled in agricultural institutes increased from 581 in 1948 to 1,580 in 1952.

Although the number of technical schools exceeded those of secondary academic instruction, the number of pupils in the former was much less than the latter. As compared with a school population exceeding 45,000 in the national schools, there were only 17,846 attending secondary technical institutes.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Private schools occupy a prominent role in the secondary educational program of Peru. Usually sponsored by church or foreign national groups, these schools enroll nearly 40 per cent of the students attending secondary schools. Because of higher tuition rates, these schools are usually attended by children from middle to upper class families. The establishment of private secondary schools has been encouraged by the government. Some of the best high schools in Peru are private.

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Trends in the Junior High School Program

CLARK M. FOUTS

INTRODUCTION

THE total program of any educational institution must be dynamic if it is to be effective in serving the needs of its pupils, the communities from which they come, and the communities in which they will live in the future. This means that the philosophy, aims, and objectives of each school and of each school administrator must be subject to continuous evaluation and, subsequently, to change in the light of this evaluation. Sound appraisal of the merits of any phase of the educational program can be made only following a careful and thorough study of its development and effect.

It is the purpose of this particular study to investigate trends in the organization of the junior high-school program in an endeavor to determine which of these trends hold promise of satisfying the ideals of a democratic philosophy of education. An attempt will also be made to ascertain the role of the administrator in the development of a program for a particular school in view of these over-all trends.

A survey of the history of secondary education in America evidences an attempt at all times to meet the needs of the society in which it has existed. Sometimes this attempt has been the result of a conscious effort on the part of school administrators; at other times, merely the subsequence of changes in program made for other reasons.

The classical curriculum of the Latin Grammar School represented the interpretation of liberal education current in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. Included in its objectives were the development of citizenship and the preparation of leaders for church and state. Pupils completing the curriculum were prepared for college, although this was not a primary aim of the school.

With the advent of the academy movement in America during the middle of the eighteenth century, the aims of the secondary-school curriculum were broadened. Benjamin Franklin, in his plan for the academy, proposed an original multiple-curriculum plan whereby pupils were fitted "... for active participation in the affairs of daily life or for entrance to college."¹

The originators of the first high schools had little intention of preparing pupils for college. Nevertheless, the high school soon came to be influenced by the Latin Grammar School and by 1840 had assumed the dual role of preparing pupils for college and training them for practical life activities as well.

¹ Douglass, Aubrey A. *Modern Secondary Education*, p. 22.

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Although college preparation remains a part of secondary education today, emphasis upon it has continued to decline so that it no longer retards the development of the school program as it did until perhaps as late as 1925. On the other hand, a more direct emphasis has come to be placed on vocational preparation. No doubt this shift in emphasis occurred when the Federal government, recognizing the need for adequate vocational training brought about by the social and industrial changes of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, made various grants which made possible the extension of this training through both vocational high schools and vocational curriculums in comprehensive high schools.²

In a similar manner, emphasis on other constant aims of secondary education has shifted as the various phases of life activity affected have changed. With each shift have come accommodating alterations in the school program. The following statement by J. G. Umstattd, Professor of Secondary Education at the University of Texas, summarizes the current aims of American secondary education: "In the curricular aim for *all* American youth today, the emphasis is upon *participation in*, rather than *preparation for* democratic living."³

The junior high school and its program appeared on the scene of American education as the result of organized effort on the part of educators to use to better advantage the time spent by pupils in public schools. This effort took the form of reorganization based largely upon recommendations made by committees of the National Education Association. These committees recommended reducing the elementary-school period from eight to six years and increasing the secondary-school period from four to six years. The following views of the committees clarify their positions:

The six years to be devoted to secondary education may well be divided into two periods, which may be designated as the junior and senior periods. In the junior period emphasis should be placed upon the attempt to help the student to explore his own aptitudes and to make at least provisional choice of the kinds of work to which he will devote himself. In the senior period emphasis should be given to training in the fields thus chosen. The distinction lies at the basis of the organization of junior and senior high schools.

... In the junior high school, there should be the gradual introduction of departmental instruction, some choice of subjects under guidance, promotion by subjects, prevocational courses, and a social organization that calls forth initiative and develops the sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the group.⁴

Thus, since its inception shortly before 1910, the junior high school has been devoted to the problems of transition occurring between the elementary- and high-school periods in the course of education.

² Monroe, Walter S. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1173-1174.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 1174.

⁴ Douglass, Aubrey A. *op. cit.*, p. 104.

CHANGE IN PHILOSOPHY

Just as the organization of American educational institutions has changed to meet the needs of pupils, the underlying philosophy of American education has paralleled the development of the concept of democracy. The objective of early American schools was to prepare the pupils for their future life. At this time in our nation's history comparatively few citizens completed secondary-school training. Therefore, educators concentrated on preparing leaders, especially in the professional fields.

As concern for the so-called "common man" increased, educational opportunity was provided for larger sections of the citizenry until today when public education for American youth can be considered universal. With this growth in scope has come additional responsibility for educators to provide for all American youth. James Bryant Conant has stated this concept as follows: "The free tax-supported schools are the sinews of our society: they are the product of our special history, a concrete manifestation of our unique ideals, and the vehicle by which the American concept of democracy may be transmitted to our future citizens. The strength of this republic is, therefore, intimately connected with the success or failure of our system of public education."⁵

Further obligation is placed upon the schools due to the fact that democracy itself has no precedent to which it may look for guidance or for a pattern of what may be expected of it in the future. Consequently, pupils must be prepared for an unknown future by being provided with a sense of direction and balance.

It is with these responsibilities and obligations firmly in mind that school administrators formulate their aims and objectives. In a broad sense these aims are currently to meet the physical, psychological, and educational needs of all pupils. While meeting the needs of all pupils, administrators are concerned with individual differences among these pupils; hence the provision of guidance is ever an objective. Likewise, educators seek to provide exploratory experiences for young people so that they may more fully understand and appreciate the world in which they live. They also endeavor to offer opportunities for pupils to enrich their lives, both at present and in the future. With it all is a constant attempt to provide pupils with the fundamentals necessary to participate effectively in our American way of life.

A typical effort to formulate a philosophy for a junior high-school program was made in Los Angeles in 1947. Using "The Ten Imperative Needs of Youth" as formulated by the committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals⁶ as a guide, a

⁵ Conant, James Bryant. *Education in a Divided World*, p. 1.

⁶ National Association of Secondary-School Principals, "The Common and Essential Needs That All Youth Have in a Democratic Society." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 31, No. 145, (March, 1947), p. 2.

group of junior high-school principals and vice-principals agreed that junior high schools must meet the following needs of junior high-school youth:⁷

1. All junior high-school youth need to explore their own aptitudes and to have experiences basic to occupational proficiency.
2. All junior high-school youth need to develop and maintain abundant physical and mental health.
3. All junior high-school youth need to be participating citizens of their school and community with increasing orientation to adult citizenship.
4. All junior high-school youth need experiences and understandings appropriate to their age and development which are the foundation of successful home and family life.
5. All junior high-school youth need to develop a sense of values of material things and the rights of ownership.
6. All junior high-school youth need to learn about the natural and physical environment and its effect on life and to have opportunity for using the scientific approach in the solution of problems.
7. All junior high-school youth need enriched living which comes from appreciation of an expression in the arts and from experiencing the beauty and wonder of the world around them.
8. All junior high-school youth need to have a variety of socially acceptable and personally satisfying leisure-time experiences which contribute either to their personal growth or to their development in wholesome group relationship or to both.
9. All junior high-school youth need experiences in group living which contribute to personality and character development; they need to develop respect for other persons and their rights and to grow in ethical insights.
10. All junior high-school youth need to grow in their ability to observe, listen, read, think, speak, and write with purpose and appreciation.

TYPES OF CURRICULUMS

To accomplish the aims and objectives which they set forth, junior high-school administrators may choose from a number of different types of programs. These program types may be divided into two general categories, the subject-centered program and the integrated or pupil-centered program. Each category has possible modifications, and features from each may even be combined into an eclectic program.

The subject-centered program, as its name implies, organizes the pupils' learning experiences around definite subject areas. These subject areas coincide closely with patterns of human knowledge which have evolved from the world's culture. Programs of this type are usually organized upon a departmental basis with the single period as the basic time unit.

The subject-centered program may be carried on in various types of curriculums. The simplest of these is the single curriculum in which all pupils on a given grade level are required to take the same subjects. From an administrative standpoint, a curriculum of this type is the simplest to organize since it requires a minimum number of teachers and involves no complicated schedule making.

⁷ Peek, Crawford E. "How Can the Junior High-School Curriculum Be Improved?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 35, No. 177, (March, 1951), pp. 291-295.

Single subject offerings can also be organized into a multiple curriculum. Under such a plan, all pupils following a certain course of study take the same subjects. This plan is more prevalent in senior than in junior high schools since the courses are usually based upon the anticipated post-graduate needs of the pupils. However, in many junior high schools a multiple curriculum is offered in the ninth grade following a single curriculum in the seventh and eighth grades. Such a plan is probably a carry-over from the eight-four plan of organization.

Finally, the subject-centered program can be organized into a constants-with-variables curriculum. In an organization of this type certain given subjects are required of all pupils on each grade level, but along with these required subjects the pupils select other subjects to complete their programs. Proponents of programs of this type point out that they not only fulfill requirements outlined by state legislatures, accrediting agencies, and boards of education, but also provide adequately for individual differences among pupils. Opponents of the plan, on the other hand, argue that the number of electives offered many times becomes so great as to be unwieldy in schedule making and as to remove all sense of direction from the individual pupils' programs.

Since 1929, forty-four states have had organized movements of various types for the revision of the curriculum. Out of these has grown a new concept of secondary education centered around the pupil, rather than around subjects. Those in favor of such integrated or pupil-centered programs feel that "... this change of view suggests for the curriculum greater flexibility, greater opportunity for creative expression, greater participation by pupils in the formulation of curricular experiences, greater use of community resources, and greater provision for continual adjustment of the curriculum to changing social and varying individual needs than has ever been implied in earlier movements."⁸

Integrated programs have developed in various general forms. The one perhaps most closely related to the traditional subject-centered curriculum, and, therefore, the most conservative of the new type programs is the correlated curriculum. It can be defined as an attempt to show the relationships existing between subject areas; for example, the interrelationships between English and foreign languages, or between American history and American literature may be emphasized.

... The starting point is subject-matter-set-out-to-be-learned. By relating the subject matter of one subject to that of another wherever possible, teachers have learned that an improvement in learning effect is experienced in each subject. Under the correlated curriculum little or no attempt is made to change the aims of teaching, the selection of the subject matter, the method of presentation, or the evaluation of the final results.

The correlated curriculum seems to be carried on in numerous ways which can be conveniently arranged on a scale. At the bottom would be located casual and incidental efforts to make relationships between or among subjects. At the top of the scale would

⁸ Monroe, Walter S. *op. cit.*, p. 1183.

be located those conscious and definitely planned efforts to see that relationships among subjects were made and carried out effectively. It is sometimes argued that all good teachers under the subject curriculum have always carried on individually a form of correlation with other subjects quite unknown to the teacher of the other subject.⁹

Therefore, it can readily be seen that the correlated curriculum does not involve necessary changes in the schedule or the staff. It does imply, however, close teacher-teacher planning among the various related subject fields.

Going just a step farther is the fused curriculum, evidences of which are seen in many of the most conservative of the subject-centered curriculums. This type of organization actually combines the offerings of two related subjects into a single subject. Thus biology has evolved from the separate subjects of zoology and botany; and world history, from ancient, medieval, and modern. More recently educators have fused less obviously related subjects such as English and social science. In doing this, they have frequently extended the length of time devoted by each pupil to the combination subject and have sometimes assigned more than one teacher to the course. Thus in its modified forms, the fused curriculum may necessitate reorganization of the school schedule to include some double periods for the fused courses and perhaps even additional faculty members.

Probably the most widely discussed of the integrated programs is the core curriculum. Because the term has changed in meaning since its introduction into educational practice, considerable confusion has resulted. Early in the history of the junior high school, the core curriculum consisted of the required courses on each grade level. Some educators continue to recognize this definition in its narrowest sense, while others extend and modify it. A. A. Douglass states, "Core curriculum has thus come into use to specify the general stock of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which the well-founded citizen should possess, and which in theory is supplied by the required work of the secondary school. In this sense it represents an upward extension of the elementary school."¹⁰

This second definition more nearly states the concept most generally accepted in recent years since it includes in its requirements not merely fundamental knowledge and subject matter, but attitudes and experiences as well. The upward extension of the elementary school referred to implies at least partial elimination of departmentalization in an attempt to co-ordinate the guidance work traditionally assigned to the home-room period with the work of the classroom. "Out of this has grown experimentation with two-and-three period classes, which form the large block of time with one teacher in the school day. In addition, the pupils take one-period elective subjects. But the two-and-three period class setup has one commitment only—to help youth work out their major personal and social problems and needs. The teacher also serves as the counselor, and such a setup provides a much needed unity between guidance and curriculum."¹¹

⁹ Hopkins, L. Thomas. *Integration: Its Meaning and Application*, pp. 201-202.

¹⁰ Douglas, Aubrey A. *op. cit.*, p. 702.

¹¹ Krug, Edward A. *Curriculum Planning*, pp. 91-92.

Obviously a program of which the key word itself is flexibility develops in numerous ways. The writer observed one such program in action at Jennings Junior High School in Akron, Ohio, in the spring of 1951. This plan was put into effect in the 1949-1950 school year and "... recommended that in the seventh grade a half day be utilized as a single block of time; in the eighth grade two double-period blocks should be used; while in the ninth grade one double-period block might be arranged."¹² The blocks of time in the seventh and eighth grades are devoted to language arts, including reading and social studies, and in the ninth grade, to civics and biology. As originally conceived, the social studies core of the seventh and eighth grades included science, but later mathematics was also added. Due to the number of electives included in the ninth-grade program, pupils can take only one of the cores offered. Directors and participants in the program hope eventually to eliminate all electives in the ninth grade as well as in the seventh and eighth. Discussion of the program by its administrators stressed that current problems were emphasized in all subjects offered at all times.

A survey conducted in 1949 showed that the core program was found with greater frequency in Maryland than in any other state.¹³ It is possible, therefore, that in some instances schools in that state have gone farther in crystallizing their objectives for such a self-contained program than schools where the program has been put into effect more recently. An example of this is stated by Dorothy Mudd, junior high-school supervisor of Harford County, Maryland:

We conceive the curriculum to be the child's total school living—all those experiences in which he participates under the direction of the school. There is no such thing as extracurricular activity in our concept. Traditional school subjects are not given varying values and there is no hierarchy of them to which we pay particular obeisance. Neither is there a predetermined course of study, body of knowledge, or list of skills which we propose to superimpose on all boys and girls. We conceive the curriculum as a living, growing, changing thing, developing as pupils and teachers work together on the solution of problems which will meet the common and individual needs of adolescents.¹⁴

Thus it is evident that the modifications of the core program developed in practice bring it into close similarity with the experience curriculum which had its beginnings in laboratory schools in various parts of the nation. This final and most liberal of the unified programs bases its approach upon "... the experiences which the child will be interested in normally and go through with naturally during his growth and development."¹⁵ Such a program presupposes no preplanned guides or goals except the satisfaction of the individual needs of its pupils and their total development.

¹² Dillehay, A. J. *Junior High-School Program of Studies*, Bulletin No. 2-i, (August 25, 1950).

¹³ Wright, Grace S. *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools*, p. 28.

¹⁴ Mudd, Dorothy. *A Core Program Grows*, p. 3.

¹⁵ Gwynn, J. Minor. *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*, p. 436.

INITIATING AND DEVELOPING THE INTEGRATED PROGRAM

It has been said that no school will move faster in any direction than its administrator does.¹⁰ It is not expected, however, that the administrator will move in an autocratic manner; for, if the democratic ideals of education are to be preserved, he shall be responsible for leadership in their preservation.

Before change or growth can take place in an orderly fashion, purposes, aims, and objectives must be ascertained. It is the primary responsibility of any school administrator to provide leadership in the formulation of such a philosophy. If this is to be a practical guide for the activities of the school, it must take into account the purpose of education in general and the specific needs of the community. Several methods have been used by administrators in doing this. For example, the staff as a whole may take part, or a special committee may be chosen to prepare a tentative outline to be amplified and revised by staff discussion. Others bring citizens of the community, school board members, and even pupil leaders into the discussions. Whatever the method chosen, the administrator has an obligation to stimulate and co-ordinate the discussion as well as to assure the continuous evaluation and revision of the philosophy.

The next logical step is the determination of the type of program that will best serve to accomplish the aims and objectives set forth. More and more educators are coming to a realization that integrated programs are more compatible to the current goals of American education than the more traditional types of organization. It has been pointed out that the pupil-centered programs have taken various forms in practice. In order to make a selection from these, those who are to participate in its administration must study, observe, and evaluate programs in action and the theories upon which they are based. Furthermore, they must report their findings to staff members and provide opportunities for them to study and investigate for themselves.

The final decision as to the particular type of organization to be developed must be made in a democratic manner if co-operation of all participants is to be expected. Where doubt exists in the minds of some staff members as to the feasibility of the newer type programs, they are often introduced on a limited scale with participation on a voluntary basis. This practice, however, many times results in confusion and distrust on the part of the public since only a portion of the student body can enroll in the program.

Administrators experienced in the development of integrated programs caution those who would institute them that absolute requisites for success are in-service training opportunities and supervision for participating teachers. This does not imply a restrictive sort of supervision, but rather counsel, guidance, and encouragement. Workshops, grade level discussion groups, and increased teacher library facilities help to point the way for teachers trained for more

¹⁰ Norman, R. B. "Curriculum Development." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 34, No. 174, (December, 1950), p. 166.

traditional programs. Above all, a creative spirit of co-operation, experimentation, and evaluation must be fostered and maintained if the program is to avoid becoming static.

Until the program has developed through use, content of the courses affected by integration should be outlined and general instructional patterns suggested.

Other duties of the administrator lie in the construction of a schedule and the provision of physical facilities in line with the purpose of the program. The schedule may require larger blocks of time for unified courses, elimination of home-room periods, provision of common planning periods for teachers of the same or related courses, and the like. Many of the newer type programs, in departing from the textbook approach to subject matter, require additional instructional aids and references and laboratory facilities.

Perhaps as important, if not more so, than any other phase of the development of an integrated program is that of public relations. The ultimate success of the school's endeavor may well lie in its understanding and acceptance by the community. Citizens must ever be kept informed of the purposes, aims, and objectives of the school and conscious of its needs. Wherever possible, they should be given an opportunity to participate in the over-all program and to enrich its offerings. Herein the task is largely that of the administrator.

In evaluating existing integrated programs in the state of Michigan, a group of educators agreed on the importance of the teacher in such programs. Teacher qualities found desirable were creativeness, average knowledge of the field to be covered, faith that pupils want to learn and have constructive interests, and willingness to work, learn, and to surrender his or her ideas of the sacredness of certain subject matter.¹⁷ Spears has outlined the following characteristics of teachers, valuable in integrated programs: respect for individual differences, belief that pupils learn by doing rather than by reciting, knowledge of and respect for boys and girls, an open mind, energy and desire to keep trying new things, and an active interest in community affairs.¹⁸ In addition to the above, it is necessary for staff members to have a co-operative attitude if they are to work together harmoniously toward the accomplishment of their goals.

It has already been indicated that all changes in the organization of the school program should be through democratic processes. It is the individual responsibility of each staff member to contribute as much as possible to these processes. This will necessitate being informed concerning the trends in education in general and specific knowledge of the various types of programs under consideration. Active participation in in-service training programs will contribute much toward this knowledge and understanding; however, individual research and observation add still more. Furthermore, each and every staff member has

¹⁷ Michigan Secondary-School Association, "Evaluating the Core Curriculum." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 32, No. 157, (November, 1948), p. 55.

¹⁸ Spears, Harold. *The High School for Today*, pp. 105-106.

an obligation to evaluate repeatedly his or her contribution to the program as a whole, and to serve as a self-appointed emissary for it in the community.

REASONS FAVORING INTEGRATED PROGRAMS

The trend toward integrated programs naturally raises the question as to whether or not they are worthy of the attention and consideration they are being given. A study of existing programs reveals numerous favorable results. Outstanding among these is the provision for effective guidance and, hence, for taking into account the individual differences of pupils. Most of these programs, especially those calling for blocks of time for core or unified courses, enable teachers to spend more time with a given group of pupils and thus give more ample opportunity for understanding individual needs and problems. Conversely, pupils have fewer teachers to know and feelings of confidence and security grow. In short, the transition from elementary to junior high school becomes easier.

Many teachers favor programs of this type because the pupil-teacher load is reduced, and more time is provided within the school day for planning. As activities formerly considered extracurricular are brought into the area traditionally designated as curricular, pupils and teachers find themselves confronted with situations not unlike those encountered in the community. The integrated programs make provision for their resolution through democratic means. Pupils learn co-operation in group activities, and the citizenry as a whole becomes a part of the school program as community resources are used to enrich it. Briefly, proponents of integrated programs feel that they exemplify democracy in action and, therefore, more adequately meet the needs of pupils and the aims of education in general.

REASONS AGAINST INTEGRATED PROGRAMS

Probably the most frequent argument raised against integrated programs in junior high schools is concerned with their impracticability in public schools under present-day conditions. It is pointed out by some administrators that, although they recognize certain advantages to be gained by such programs, record school enrollments preclude the possibility of reducing pupil-teacher loads. Even if money were available for salaries for additional faculty members, many existing school buildings would not provide enough space. Furthermore, they can find no place in already over-burdened budgets for the expense of more numerous instructional aids which such programs usually demand.

Other administrators foresee difficulty in relating the instruction given by several teachers who have long worked independently along closely drawn subject lines. They indicate that many teacher training institutions are still preparing teachers for subject-centered programs in line with state teacher certification requirements. Therefore, they feel that teachers are unprepared, even

if willing, to accept the greater responsibilities of guidance and program planning which integrated programs involve.

Tradition and existing standards have placed a further stumbling block in the way of pupil-centered programs. The many accrediting agencies throughout the country have carefully defined requirements for pupils in terms of subjects to be completed and credits to be earned. Administrators who would adopt the newer type programs are faced with the necessity of evaluating their offerings in terms of those existing standards, a task not readily accepted by many.

Other opponents of integrated programs appear to base their opposition more upon emotion than upon reason. Theirs are the voices probably most often heard in protest. They often blame boards of education for employing administrators who would reorganize the school program for purposes of personal publicity and then move to other systems leaving chaos in their wake. They also see the programs as developed around pupil interests, which to them means that as pupil interests fluctuate, the program fluctuates, making continuity and order impossible, and leaving pupils without a sense of responsibility for completing any given task. L. E. Leipold expresses the view held by still others:

Proponents of this "new" education take the ethereal approach of the middle forties when ideals were high and the postwar world was to be an educator's dream that would lead inevitably to everlasting peace through brotherly love and complete understanding among all races and peoples.

The year 1951 came too soon for these planners; today there is war and strife; a state of national emergency exists; fear is rampant and disillusionment weighs heavily on the hearts of realists. A favorite cliché of these progressives is one that calls for "educating boys and girls to take their places in the world's society." Yet they prepare for a world of peace and tolerance and understanding knowing full well that when these youths reach the age of eighteen, they are going to become cogs in our national defense machine and for a minimum of two years will be taught the most effective methods of liquidating people whom they have been preparing since kindergarten to love, before they themselves are dispatched.¹⁰

CONCLUSIONS

There can be little doubt after investigation that interest in integrated programs for the junior high school is growing year by year. Pupil-centered programs are appearing with increasing frequency on the programs of professional organizations, in workshop discussions, in literature, and in the offerings of the teacher training institutions. Some states are beginning to revise teacher certification requirements in line with the newer type programs.

This trend toward integrated programs seems to stem directly from a recognition of the increased responsibility of the schools for citizenship training. The heterogeneous grouping recommended for these programs provides an ideal natural setting for group participation in democratic procedures.

¹⁰ Leipold, L. E. "The Charges Against Common Learnings." *The Clearing House*, Vol. 25, No. 8, (April, 1951), pp. 455-456.

It would seem that no one program can be outlined which will prove satisfactory in every school situation. State laws, financial limitations, personnel involved, and community attitudes play important roles in program revision and change. Above all, the needs of pupils must be taken into consideration if the program is to be of benefit.

However, no administrator should preclude defeat because there seem to be obstacles in his way. With proper guidance and provision for training, it has been discovered that nearly all teachers already serving in the public schools can find increased satisfaction in pupil-centered teaching. Together, administrators and teachers can develop a modification of one of the newer type programs for the school in which they serve. The initial attempt at program revision should probably not be a radical one, but some integration and correlation between traditional subject areas seem to be imperative even in the most conservative school situation. The students' out-of-school experiences are not segregated and classified, neither should they be in the school.

Not only do educators have a responsibility for providing an educational program to meet the needs of the community, but they also have an obligation to keep the citizenry informed at all times of the aims and objectives of the program. With administrators, teachers, and citizens working together with the ultimate benefit of youth constantly before them, the American system of free public education cannot fail.

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Democratic vs. Autocratic School Administration

MAURICE NADLER

WHILE we are seeking enthusiastically to advance the cause of democratic school administration, it would be helpful to take an inventory of the desirable characteristics of a public school system infused with democracy. At the same time, a view of the antipodes should assist more forcibly in depicting the significant features of a democratic public schools system.

The following contrasting lists offer no choice. The inherent nature of our national origins and the events in the development of our country point inescapably to the first pattern. Some of its features may appear highly idealistic and remotely attainable. Yet recent years have been accompanied by the rejection of many aspects of autocratic school administration previously well-established and by the gradual adoption of principles and practices formerly considered unacceptable. In fact, the complete acceptance of democratic procedures has in many instances shrouded their very existence. Lest we lose sight of our progress, some points are, therefore, included in the lists which by now are taken for granted. A comprehensive portrayal of the contrasting elements of the two systems is thus presented.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM DESIGNED TO PREPARE YOUTH FOR A LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY

1. The teachers and members of the community have participated in the planning of the school buildings and their grounds.
2. There is a sufficient supply of equipment for shops and laboratories, and of pamphlets and textbooks, to accommodate all classes and pupils without charge. The material is varied to meet the differing interests of pupils, and the points of view contained in the textbooks are diversified.
3. Admission to the schools is open to all pupils without payment of tuition, regardless of race, creed, or color. A comprehensive program of adult education is included.
4. Teachers have assisted in the selection of newer members of the teaching staff, and even in the selection of heads of departments and principals.

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5. Salaries of the members of the staff are sufficient to meet their needs, providing for present and future security. Tenure exists, and removal for just cause only is possible.

6. The members of the staff are assigned a fair schedule of activity, allowing time for guidance, curriculum research, and the so-called extracurricular activities.

7. The aims and objectives of the educational program have been developed by the co-operative efforts of all members of the staff and representatives of the community.

8. Curriculums and courses of study are the products of the joint efforts of the members of the teaching staff, and even result from the participation of the pupils.

9. There is an extensive system of sympathetic guidance of pupils, engaged in by teachers, special advisers, and specialists.

10. The members of the staff participate in the determination of administrative policies as to school schedules, records, reports, and requisitions.

11. The principal is friendly, open to criticisms and suggestions for improvements. He is a leader not a ruler.

12. The teachers are friendly toward the pupils and toward each other. The classroom is a unit of democracy in which all pupils feel free to present their opinions.

13. The spirit of the pupils in the school is that generally of freedom, but not disorder. In this atmosphere, punishments that must be administered are real and reasonable, imposed only after fair opportunity for defense.

14. Within the school there is a system of teacher organization and committees, exerting their efforts toward the betterment of the school. Ample opportunity for the development of teacher leadership is provided. Academic freedom prevails.

15. A student organization provides ample opportunity for pupil participation in the management of the school and concomitant training in leadership.

16. Through community organizations, members of the community are given a voice in the development of educational policies, while school activities are closely allied to the institutions of the community.

17. Teacher, pupil, and community organizations are all tied together in a functional organization, exchanging ideas and producing an educational system which reflects the common efforts of all.

18. In the classrooms, activities are interesting, alive, and real. Pupil activity predominates. Variety of activity from class to class is indicative that varied pupil interests and abilities are being challenged.

19. The product of this school system is an individual who is alert to the significance of democracy, who realizes his own worth in society, who has respect for the other man and his opinions, and who is prepared to accept the responsibilities of citizenship and to help solve its problems co-operatively with others, having already engaged in these experiences through the school.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM DESIGNED TO PREPARE YOUTH FOR A
LIFE IN A TOTALITARIAN STATE

1. School buildings and grounds in all communities follow the same pattern prescribed by some high administrator of the state.

2. School supplies and equipment are prescribed from above, without regard for the particular interests of the community. Textbooks are prepared with the deliberate intent of indoctrinating one point of view.

3. Selection of pupils for the schools is based upon discriminatory regulations, with definite exclusion of certain racial and religious groups.

4. Selection of principals, supervisors, and teachers has been imposed from above. Complete subservience to state propaganda has been the main factor in the selections.

5. Tenure is non-existent. Dismissal and punishment will follow immediately any exercise of freedom on the part of the members of this staff.

6. Teachers are assigned to duties without regard to their own preferences and interests. Distribution to tasks is unfair and unequal, dependent upon favoritism.

7. Aims and objectives of the educational program are solely the perpetuation of the present state and its militaristic aims.

8. Curriculums and courses of study have been printed and distributed. There is no opportunity for initiative on the part of teachers or for participation by the pupils in the planning.

9. Pupils are directed to pursue certain courses of study and activities, regardless of their own desires and interests.

10. Administrative policies are prescribed by higher officials. These are usually very rigid. No variance is allowed to meet special conditions.

11. The principal is autocratic, haughty, and unfriendly. His decisions are unquestionable. No hint of criticism is possible.

12. The teacher is unapproachable, and is unfriendly toward the pupil. Classroom recitations proceed by rote. The pupils are permitted to recite only that which appears in the textbook or in the words used by the teacher.

13. Pupils in the school are completely subjugated. The atmosphere of the school is frigid. Movement of the pupils at all times is according to prescribed military regulations. Punishments of pupils are cruel and unreasonable. No opportunity for defense is provided.

14. Organizations of teachers and pupils are lacking in the schools. Such organizations would foster individuality and hence disobedience. Any organizations that do exist are of the rubber-stamp variety. Their sole purpose is to "yes" the decisions and policies imposed from above.

15. In these schools, spying and reporting of slight deviations from the regimented patterns are encouraged and rewarded. Teachers and pupils are attempting to sustain their present positions and are seeking to advance themselves by stepping on others.

16. Classroom activities are strictly prescribed. Opinions are forbidden; the propaganda of the state is foremost.

17. The product of this school system is an individual who knows only what the state wants him to know, who is intolerant of any views except those prescribed by the state, who is prejudiced against groups of individuals, who is prepared to suppress minorities forcibly, and who will follow blindly the dictates of the state cruelly and unthinkingly.

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The High School Principalship

AUDIE J. LYNCH

FOR centuries schools have had a significant place in the social order, but the origin and rapid development of the American public high school are relatively new. Since its establishment in the early nineteenth century, this institution has been undergoing constant change. This indicates that the training and duties of the high-school principal of today must necessarily be more varied and complex than those of his predecessor who was sometimes called the principal teacher, headmaster, and by other titles. The rapid rate of growth of this school since its founding and the far-reaching development it is undergoing internally give rise to the question of whether the principalship is matching the development of the institution.

In an attempt to answer this question and to determine the extent to which the public secondary-school principalship in Arkansas was professionalized, the writer made a survey of certain factors affecting the status of the high-school principalship in Arkansas. The study included sixty-nine principals of four-year high schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior-senior high schools who had at least one half of their time available for administrative and supervisory activities in the schools to which they were assigned. The data for the study were secured from the returns of an extensive questionnaire which was sent to these high-school principals and from interviews with them.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The public secondary-school principals in Arkansas are predominantly men who feel that they are highly respected in their local communities. They have become a part of their communities by participating in its activities. It appears that, as far as prestige is concerned, the principals are in a position to exert a positive influence in their respective communities.

Most of the high-school principals had selected some phase of work in the field of education as a life career before completing their undergraduate preparation. Even that early, many were looking forward specifically to school administration. A factor which indicated that most of the individuals planned to become administrators is that a majority had taken courses in the areas of administration, supervision, and curriculum before being elected to an administrative position.

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Most of the principals have had a rather extensive background of teaching and administrative experience as well as considerable professional preparation. Although the background of teaching experience of Arkansas high-school principals is not so extensive as that reported in similar studies made in other states, only a few in Arkansas had not served an internship as a teacher before becoming principals. Arkansas high-school principals are following the nationwide trend in that they are attaining a high level of academic and professional preparation. The fact that a large majority have graduate majors in educational administration indicates that they are preparing themselves for their responsibilities in their profession.

High-school principals are concentrating on the professional courses which prove to be most valuable to them in their work. Most of the principals have taken courses in school administration, supervision, and curriculum either before or after becoming an administrator, and each of these areas was ranked high by the principals in order of importance to the principalship. Most of the principals also stated that they plan to concentrate on these areas in any further preparation.

Most of the incumbents reported that they were able to maintain a reasonable living standard on their professional salaries. Opportunity for advancement is present in the principalship since a direct relationship exists between salary and size of school, the salary and administrative experience, and the salary and collegiate preparation.

Public secondary-school principals in Arkansas are engaging in activities which should improve their profession. A large majority of them are active, as far as membership is concerned, in the state and national education associations and in local schoolmasters clubs; and most of them hold membership in the national organization designed especially for high-school principals. Although several principals have impressive professional reading programs, most of them apparently are not regularly reading enough professional magazines to become and stay as fully informed as would be desirable. Only a few had written professional articles for publication.

Most of the individuals contacted in the survey planned to continue as a high-school principal, indicating a fairly high degree of stability in the principalship. Of those planning to leave the principalship, only a small number expected to leave educational work completely.

The high-school principals in Arkansas devote a relatively small proportion of their time to supervision and the improvement of instruction. They are thus neglecting what should be their most important function. Many principals are spending an undue amount of time on routine clerical work. Most of them have tried to systematize part of their work by maintaining regular office hours.

The high-school principals in Arkansas seem to have a general understanding of what their duties include, the basis for this being a mutual agreement with

the superintendent of schools. The absence of a definition of the principal's duties in the rules and regulations of the board of education could result in neglecting major duties and in giving an undue amount of attention to minor duties. Many principals do not have authority in certain vital matters such as supervision of custodians and buildings, public relations activities, and rating teachers. However, many principals have complete or shared authority in regard to several other duties pertaining to the organization and administration of the high school.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE PRINCIPALSHIP

The State Department of Education and professional groups should consider establishing specific requirements for a secondary-school principal's certificate which would be mandatory for all high-school principals. This certificate should be renewable only in accordance with certain regulations. The possibility of an optional advanced certificate for those meeting higher requirements should also be considered.

A definition of the local administrative and supervisory duties of the principal should be agreed upon by the superintendent of schools and the high-school principal, written out, and approved by the board of education.

Boards of education should make provisions for adequate clerical assistance for high-school principals. The principals should delegate much of the routine clerical work they are now doing in order to be able to spend a greater amount of time on the more important function of supervision and the improvement of instruction. Principals should also systematize their work by making a flexible schedule of their time so that none of their duties will be neglected.

The State Department of Education, superintendents of schools, and high-school principals should continue to make an effort to acquaint local boards of education and citizens with desirable procedures in school administration and in the responsibilities and function of high-school principals in general.

The high-school principals themselves should assume more responsibility, both individually and as a group, for improving their status and for developing a greater professional consciousness. More interest in professional reading and writing and wider participation of the principals in their professional organizations should lead to the improvement of standards for the principalship and for the educational profession in general.

Legislation and policies should be promoted which would encourage a more justifiable standard of remuneration for high-school principals in line with their period of preparation and other qualifications.

Qualifications of a High School Principal

HERMAN L. FRICK

IN attempting an answer to the question, "What should be the qualifications of a school principal?" we would do well to begin by analyzing, as carefully as we can, the situation in which the principal must operate. In doing this, it seems to me, we too often content ourselves with a rather superficial analysis. In some cases we limit ourselves to thinking about the many things the principal is called upon to do and the pressures he must face. As a result we come out with a rather vague set of qualities which he should have in order to stand up under the pressure. A good illustration of this came to my attention in an advertisement announcing the existence of a vacancy in a principalship and listing the qualities desired in the new principal. The announcement, written by a county superintendent of schools, reads as follows:

There is a vacancy for principalship in a challenging school and we are open for applications. We would like to consider a man for this good post who has the wisdom of Solomon, the patience of Job, the strength of Sampson, and the piety of St. Luke; we desire that he have the personal appearance of Clark Gable, the eloquence of Franklin D. Roosevelt, and the sagacious judgmental ability of Winston Churchill seeking a U.S. loan; we require that he have the interest of the race as closely at heart as Brigham Young but coupled thereto the self-restraint of St. Paul; we stipulate that the applicant have the dominance of the Roman, the understanding of the Greek, and the self-denial of the Hebrew; he must pay for his religion like a Presbyterian, work on it like a Methodist, and enjoy it like a Baptist; he must plan like Dr. Chester Travelstead, explain like Dr. John Goodlad, and relax like Dr. John Dodson. In short, we want a "plum good" principal who is not leaving his previous post by invitation of the brethren.

We might say that "a plum good man" is about as far as we get in defining the qualifications of a principal, following this procedure.

Another approach begins by locating a principal who has been judged "good" by someone and by analyzing what he does in his job. Those who follow this approach seldom look to find why someone considered the individual in question to be a "good principal"; it seems enough to accept the fact that someone has so judged him. Typically, through this process we come out with a series of statements which represent a greatly over-simplified concept of the job of the principal. The statement usually includes such items as school management, internal accounting, instructional improvement, and public relations.

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This article is an adaptation of an address delivered by Dr. Herman L. Frick before the Georgia Principals' Association Convention at the University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, on July 17, 1953.

Discussing these categories and what they mean for the qualifications of the principal, we usually conclude that he must have executive, managerial, or organizational ability. The assumption is that the school must be a smooth running, efficient, and businesslike organization. We conclude, further, that he must provide leadership for the teaching faculty in the process of improving instruction since this is the main job of the school. Therefore, he must be competent in techniques of leadership and instruction in order that he might be able to show the way. Moreover, we recognize that no school can operate well and stay out of trouble if the supporting community does not understand or is not in sympathy with what it is attempting to do. We conclude, therefore, that the principal must be competent in public relations—a dispenser of good will, an inspirer of confidence, an interpreter of education—whatever they may mean. The result, in either case, as we can see, is usually a number of glittering generalities which have little meaning and provide little help for the principal who is seriously concerned to become better qualified for his job.

The job analysis technique which we have outlined to this point is good as far as it goes, and it may have been sufficient in an earlier day when our culture was less complex and the role of the school less in question. But it doesn't go far enough for 1954. Nothing less than a clear appraisal of the world situation in which we operate and of the state of our knowledge with respect to the nature of learning is sufficient to provide a basis for projecting hypotheses concerning the appropriate qualifications for the job of school principal.

Obviously, this cannot be done in the space allotted for this discussion, even if we had the ability to do it. However, I shall be presumptuous enough to attempt a few of what seem to be the more significant conditions which we face. No one with normal intelligence and minimum alertness can be unaware of the fact that ours is a precarious age. As one author has expressed it:¹

We see a general state of unrest, which inevitably results in conflict. We had hoped that the war would be over in 1945, but we have learned to our dismay, that it has only been transferred and diffused. Where formerly we knew whom we were fighting and where he was, now our enemies are among us and we can scarcely tell friend from foe. Nation is arrayed against nation, group against group, neighbor against neighbor. This results in a state of general apprehension. Fear and hatred are abroad in the world, and probably no human being anywhere who is alert enough to take in his surroundings is free from them.

We see the evidences of this situation on every hand and on all levels. International discord between the free world and the communistic world, and even between nations that look upon themselves as allies, is a world-wide illustration. Bitter disagreements among our own statesmen with respect to both foreign and domestic policies, smear campaigns, name calling, guilt by association, attacks upon our basic institutions including even the church and the school, book burning, mistrust of our neighbors if they happen to be of a different

¹ Kelley, Earl C., and Rasey, Marie I. *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1952. P. 3.

color or even in a different trade or profession from us are illustrations on the national, state, and local levels.

And the tragedy is that we too often do not recognize or understand what has happened to us. We either ignore it from ignorance or resist its implications because of lack of understanding. What has happened, I believe, is that through the tremendous increase in knowledge and technical know-how which has resulted in an equally tremendous expansion in the supply and use of energy we have created a world which we ourselves do not fully understand. We sense, vaguely, that it has within it the potentialities for unparalleled good for human betterment and a whole set of new freedoms. But we sense more clearly that it has within it the potentialities for the enslavement of man, or even his very destruction. We don't know how to use the energy which we have at our disposal in such a way as to avoid catastrophe on the one hand, or to achieve the vaguely sensed human betterment on the other hand.

In the face of this situation we are confused and anxious. The old values and patterns by which we have lived, such as isolation from foreign entanglements on the international level or "earning our bread by the sweat of our brow" on the personal level, no longer serve as adequate guides. And at the same time we have not discovered or created new values or patterns of conduct upon which we can agree as guides to action. In other words, the old answers are no longer adequate, and we have not yet found new, adequate answers.

Our confusion is made even worse by the fact that, as a result of increasing specialization in our own country, we have lost touch with each other. That is to say, each special interest group, such as the various professions, trades, and business organizations, has developed value systems of its own and even symbolisms of its own which are not understood by the members of the other groups. The same is true of the various socio-economic class groups in our society. This has progressed to such an extent that we even have difficulties communicating with each other on subjects more serious than the weather or the current baseball or football campaign. In discussing this condition Linton has said:²

We are rapidly approaching the point where there will no longer be enough items on which all members of the society agree to provide the culture with form and pattern. What the modern world needs far more than improved production methods or even a more equitable distribution of their results is a series of mutually consistent ideas and values in which all its members can participate.

Another aspect of the tragedy of the situation is the fact that it inevitably takes a heavy toll of children and youth. If the adult culture is confused and tense, it can only produce confusion, tension, and insecurity in youth. This is reflected in many ways in the behavior of young people all the way from restlessness and irresponsibility to minor delinquency and crime. It is even reflected in the physical health of youth. The increase in juvenile delinquency has been called to our attention many times. An apparent growing tendency toward dope

² Linton, R. *The Study of Man*, p. 284

addiction and the alarming fact that the past ten years have brought an increase in mortality among youth from disease and accidents are illustrations of the toll which youth are paying for the tenseness of our times.

If, then, the old answers do not serve and if we are threatened by disaster because we have not found new satisfactory answers which bind us together, what is the solution? And what does this mean for the role of the school? Frankly, I do not claim to know. However, several items from the great American experience and tradition seem to me to give some guidance.

The first of these is the commitment to the belief, validated in our experience, that the individual human being is of supreme worth. This commitment is written indelibly in the great documents of our American heritage, in such words as "... all men are created equal ... and ... are endowed with ... rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness"—or again, in the "We the people of the United States . . .," and "... with liberty and justice for all."

We have found, further, that, in the protection of these rights of life, liberty, and justice for all individuals, the individual idea counts. As we have examined ideas, regardless of their source, in terms of the consequences that would flow from acting upon them, we have discovered new and better ways for promoting a better life for all humans. Our own experiment in government, our great achievements in technology, all testify to the validity of this belief.

In the third place, we have found that human intelligence, freed to act upon human problems, can solve those problems. And we have found, too, that the ability to solve human problems or to contribute toward their solution is not a monopoly held by a few intellectual giants, but that it is a potentiality held by all normal individuals. This belief has been validated over and over in the American experience.

It seems to me, then, that the way out of our present dilemma, or anxious age, is relatively clear. It is for all of us to re-explore and re-dedicate ourselves to the idea of human freedom, the dignity and worth of the individual, if you will, or to the idea that all instrumentalities of man, including government, industry, education, and all our institutions, should serve as instruments for the promotion of greater liberty and justice for all individuals affected by them.

Further, it means, it seems to me, that we should utilize the intelligence of all individuals in a concerted effort to find new and progressively better answers to the problems of living in this new world in which we find ourselves. For us in education, it has a further special meaning. Since the demands of this new world are such that we do not know the answers beyond certain very elementary facts and since the answers change so rapidly in the basic issues of life, we cannot content ourselves by attempting to teach the old answers which are outworn. Moreover, since we believe that normal human beings have the

potentiality for solving their problems and that this potentiality can be developed into a functional ability through education, it seems that we should give greater attention to the development of this potentiality. And further, since the present state of our society is such that our very way of life is threatened by confusion and disunity, we need to give greater attention to the building of a stronger common core of values which all can accept as appropriate guides to action. In other words, in addition to helping youth master the elementary skills, we must concentrate our efforts in school on helping the learners identify their common and individual problems and, once these problems are recognized as their own, on helping the learners develop and implement plans for solving those problems in a satisfactory way. It is through this process that the potentiality for solving human problems is developed into functional ability. And it is also through the process of working together in solving common problems that they develop common loyalties, or a core of common values.

You ask, and rightly so, "But what does all this mean for the qualifications of the school principal?" The answer seems almost obvious to me—it means everything. The principalship cannot be practiced in a vacuum, nor can the school of which he is principal operate in a vacuum. It must operate within a culture and, if he is to provide leadership in the operation of the school, the principal must possess high qualifications in several basic respects. *First*, he must understand thoroughly the culture—its problems, alternatives, and commitments—in which he lives and works. *Second*, he must have a thorough understanding of the appropriate role of the school in that culture. *Third*, he must have skill in interpreting the culture and the role of the school in the culture to teachers and to laymen in his community. *Fourth*, he must be able to help teachers and other school personnel in identifying their problems and in planning to meet those problems in relationship to the role of the school.

Certainly, there are other qualifications which the principal should have. Among them are: a mastery of techniques for promoting good human relations among the school faculty and pupils, the ability to interpret the school to the community and the community to the school, skill in handling routine organizational procedures, and others. These, however, are all predicated upon and get their meaning from the first two, for their application must be determined by the clarity of understanding which the principal and staff have of the nature of the society in which the school operates and of the appropriate role of the school in that society.

It is not an exaggeration to say that no generation of school people has ever faced a situation more fraught with danger or challenge. For, if we fail to achieve these qualifications in a high measure, the ideal of a world in which people are free to live and to work out their own way of life will fail with us. We dare not fail! We cannot fail! May we have the courage, the dedication, and the understanding to succeed beyond our own fondest hopes.

Professional Strategy for the School Administrator

J. B. EDMONSON

WEBSTER defines strategy as concerned with "attention to planning and directing forces so as to gain advantages in place, time, or conditions." The writer has found that administration is in part a succession of games, some of which may be won and others lost, tied, cancelled, or postponed. It is granted that strategy is only one aspect of educational administration and that no amount of attention to tactics will compensate for inadequate professional training, low professional objectives, or immaturity of character. Good strategy or generalship may, however, spell the difference between fair or high success in administration and between unhappy or happy experiences as a school administrator. Some of the observations¹ of the writer relative to professional strategy or tactics may be summarized as follows:

I. COMMUNITY RELATIONS

1. It is poor strategy to "strut" one's potential authority, as many persons distrust a school administrator who seeks to advertise his power.
2. It is good strategy to know the controlling motives, the special interests, or the "touchy" points of leaders.
3. It is wise strategy to focus public attention on the significant achievements of the school, the pupils, and the staff rather than to seek personal credit.
4. No long record of successes in non-school organizations or activities will save the administrator who neglects the job for which he is employed.
5. An educational administrator should seek to avoid involvement in political disputes, community feuds, or church quarrels.
6. A shrewd administrator will seek to develop news policies calculated to hold the confidence of the reporters of newspapers.

II. STAFF RELATIONS

7. A wise administrator will insure effective two-way communication with his staff and the patrons.
8. It is usually unwise for a newly appointed administrator to make immediate changes in many of the practices, policies, and rules of a predecessor.

¹ To record your opinion on the value of the advice implied in a given statement, use the letters A, D, or U to mean *Approve*, *Disagree*, and *Unimportant*. Use the letter X to record "No opinion."

J. B. Edmonson was formerly the Dean of the School of Education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

9. In a large system, an administrator will find it is good strategy to combat the tendency of those in the several school buildings to consider that the headquarters staff decides everything without consultation with those in other buildings.

10. Except in an emergency, it is poor strategy to call staff meetings without adequate warning and careful planning.

11. It is good strategy to meet as many staff members as possible at places other than the central office.

12. A wise administrator will give associates the benefit of doubt and will seek ways of protecting them against their own weaknesses.

13. An expert administrator will avoid extending unwarranted recognition to any one or more cliques in the organization.

14. Staff members should not have their sense of security undermined by false rumors, hasty decisions, or administrative threats.

15. A far-sighted administrator will keep future plans for the schools before the staff in anticipation of possible rumors and crises.

16. A competent administrator will share credit with others, even to the point of giving undue recognition of associates.

17. A wise administrator will strive for teamwork and will usually use "we" and "our" rather than "I" and "mine" in discussing successes and problems.

18. The office staff should always be kept informed regarding the schedule of the administrator.

III. OFFICE POLICIES

19. Most callers are satisfied with an interview if treated with courtesy and allowed to talk for ten minutes.

20. All letters should be acknowledged, but most writers are satisfied if they receive a reply, even though it may not cover all issues raised.

21. It is poor tactics to spend time quarreling or disagreeing with people by correspondence or over the telephone.

22. An administrator should seek to avoid being placed in an unfavorable light by those members of the office staff who may treat callers with scant courtesy, release confidential information, or usurp authority.

IV. OPPOSITION AND CRITICISM

23. An administrator should expect some criticism and opposition and should prepare himself accordingly, otherwise he may be caught "off base."

24. It is good strategy to plan for new developments and to hold the plans until openings occur to advance them without too much opposition.

25. It is desirable strategy to resist the temptation to become discouraged or disgruntled because of the coolness, criticisms, or open opposition of associates.

26. An administrator should seek to develop a capacity to endure criticism and opposition by developing expert footwork, a tough skin, or a sustaining philosophy of administration. A combination of these is always the best preparation.

27. A skillful administrator will use humor or incidents to relieve tensions and strains in individual or group conferences.

28. An expert in strategy will anticipate problems with such care that a succession of costly crises for himself, his associates, the parents, the secretarial staff, and the pupils will be avoided.

29. An administrator should always remember that the Lord is the only one that treats plans, opinions, motives, and decisions as strictly confidential.

30. An administrator should not dance on the graves of enemies, as their friends may object to the noise.

31. A shrewd administrator will not boast about his strategy or tactics, as many persons are very suspicious of strategists except in team sports or military affairs.

Who Are Most Likely to Drop Out of High School?

THIS was the question asked by Doron Warren in making a drop-out study of the class of 1952 at the Austin (Minn.) Junior-Senior High School. A total of 380 individuals was studied—136 boys and 132 girls who entered in grade VII; 59 boys and 53 girls who entered in grade IX (mostly from rural areas). Findings relate to an analysis of holding power of a 6-year high school enrolling about 2,200 pupils. Here are some things Warren found out: (1) pupils entering a 6-year high school in grade VII show slightly greater stay-in-school power than those entering grade IX; (2) pupils entering in grade IX who drop out tend to withdraw during the year in which they enter; (3) though more pupils of lesser scholastic ability are remaining to be graduated, intelligence quotients are factors affecting holding power; (4) there appears to be a connection between poor reading ability and a pupil's tendency to drop out; (5) a pupil with a poor attendance record is much more likely to drop out than one with a satisfactory attendance record; (6) participation in extraclass activities seems to be influential in holding pupils in high school; (7) the financial condition of the pupil (need for working part-time outside of school) does not appear to be a chief factor in causing drop-outs; and (8) youth who withdraw from school frequently come from homes of unskilled workers and farmers. A 32-page study contains 17 tables as well as suggestions for corrective actions to increase holding power. For additional information, write to Assistant Principal Doron Warren.

What Is of More Value Than a Good Teacher?

HOMER T. ROSENBERGER

EVERY school in America needs teachers with (1) teaching skill, (2) high principles, (3) vision, and (4) enthusiasm for educating. These four characteristics can be found among many teachers either during their first year of teaching, immediately following graduation from college, or among persons who have taught for years. Unfortunately a large percentage of teachers lack one or more of these four characteristics and, therefore, do not meet fully the needs of education.

TEACHING IS A PROFESSION

A profession is defined as a vocation or calling which requires special training of a type that is secured mainly in colleges and universities. A profession is a field of work which requires technical skills and which also includes a code of ethics. The technical skills are acquired from books and from practice subsequent to formal training. The type of instructors under whom the formal training is secured has a significant bearing on the competence and attitude and, therefore, on the quality of the professional work which an individual will perform. In many cases a profession requires judgment and leadership in addition to technical skills. Among the examples of the professions are medicine, law, and engineering.

A profession requires that its members have a body of knowledge on which activity in the profession depends. Furthermore, a profession requires that its members keep up to date with advances pertinent to their field. This body of knowledge on which activity in a profession depends is specialized and is in addition to a liberal education.

A profession requires a means for providing its members with the body of knowledge which they need in order to function in the profession. Engineering schools provide civil, mechanical, and electrical engineers with the body of knowledge which the engineer finds necessary. Law schools and medical schools provide respectively for lawyers and members of the medical profession. Members of the teaching profession receive specialized information concerning the science of teaching through schools of education found in many universities in America, through departments of education in most liberal arts colleges in the United States, and through approximately 175 teachers colleges found across the country.

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The successful teacher has at his command a dual body of knowledge. It deals with the science of teaching and with the subject matter being taught, such as mathematics, history, and English.

A profession requires that its members have a keen sense of responsibility to the public. A professional person is presumed to have reasonably high ideals. It is hoped that a majority of persons in any profession place service above monetary reward.

Teaching is a profession which requires of its members a relatively large body of specialized knowledge. Teaching is a human relations field and requires understanding of human behavior. Psychiatrists, psychologists, and others still have rather little scientific insight into why human beings act as they do. Relatively few people know how to pick out the complicated causes of behavior within a particular person or within that particular person's environment, and how to improve another's conduct. Teachers are expected daily to be experts in the human relations field. They are expected to be able to deal successfully with many types of human personality. In addition, they are expected to be master of one or more of the subject matter fields in the curriculum. A type of work requiring such a wide range of skill and understanding is a profession indeed.

Teaching, actually, is among the most responsible of the professions. If a teacher blunders in his dealings with a pupil, the direction of that pupil's life may be affected. For example, a high-school teacher who taught history and coached dramatics told one of his pupils that he did not have the ability to act. Therefore, he refused to try and has been frustrated in public appearances for many years, to the present. A teacher's blunder in dealing with a pupil may be even more tragic than in that instance. The blunder may result in leaving school at an early age and virtually wavering and vacillating for a half century. If the teacher handles the situation well, the case may be almost exactly opposite, with the pupil being graduated from medical, law, or theological school and rendering outstanding service for many years.

In some quarters teaching is looked upon as a field with few specific requirements. Until twenty-five years ago a number of states failed to set reasonable minimum requirements to obtain a license or certificate to teach in public schools. Katherine M. Cook, in United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1927, No. 19, entitled *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*, published in 1928, points to startling facts. For instance, in fifteen states it was possible in 1927 to begin to teach in certain public schools with no professional requirement other than completing the ninth grade! Although there were at that time numerous instances of types of teachers' certificates requiring a college education, only three states required at least two years of schooling beyond high-school graduation for inexperienced applicants to be eligible to teach in public schools in 1927. These facts are shown on a map on page 17 and in tables on pages 229, 245, and 251 of the bulletin.

The lax situation in teacher certification has changed rapidly. Today in the United States it is virtually a necessity to be graduated from college in order to be permitted to teach in a high school and to have completed two years of college work successfully to teach in an elementary school. In many states a college degree is required before a certificate is issued to teach in either high school or elementary school. W. Earl Armstrong of the United States Office of Education and T. M. Stinnett of the National Education Association point to this fact in their study entitled *Certification Requirements For School Personnel*. Published by the U. S. Office of Education as Circular No. 290, 1951, it shows a definite trend in the direction of requiring at least a bachelor's degree for initial certification of all teachers in public schools and five years of college work for permanent or continuing certification. Armstrong and Stinnett point out that four states and the District of Columbia now require five years of college work on the part of those who desire to teach in high school and that thirty-six states require four years of college preparation, but that most states permit persons to teach in some vocational and trade fields who have not completed college. The Armstrong and Stinnett study shows that seventeen states require completion of college in order to teach in elementary school, and that seven other states have established this requirement to become effective shortly.

The increasing emphasis on college preparation for teaching has been very marked in the United States during the last twenty-five years. This emphasis is one tangible piece of evidence which indicates that teaching is a profession. When considering the amount of technical skill which teachers are expected to display and the ethical standards which they ought to follow, one can scarcely doubt that teaching is a high calling. In surveying the professions, we can regard teaching as did Marcus Tullius Cicero (106-43 B.C.), the Roman orator and master of Latin prose style, when writing in his *De divinatione*, II, c. 78 B.C., "What nobler employment, or more valuable to the state, than that of the man who instructs the rising generation?"

HUMAN SPARK PLUGS

In the classroom the teacher is the spark plug. The best motor performs poorly with defective spark plugs. Even though the teacher is the spark plug in the classroom, a small percentage of pupils develop rapidly in spite of inferior teachers and a few at the other end of the bell curve will scarcely develop under the best teachers. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of our schools is largely in proportion to the effectiveness of the teachers. This is due to the fact that the teacher has daily contact with and influence on the pupil. Furthermore, it is mainly from the teacher ranks that school administrators are selected.

A spark plug, functioning properly, gives the exact *amount* of spark to produce maximum performance. This proper gauging is an important function in school and one which the teacher must *ever* attempt to perfect. He must avoid too

much or too little leadership—inspiring—or subject matter content at any one time for a group or for individuals within a group. Using leadership, or inspiration, in just the right amount at a given time is an art and is evidence of superb leadership. Providing an appropriate amount of subject matter content at any particular time also is an art.

A good spark plug is made of high quality materials and is able to perform well under pressure of overload and long, hard pull. The good teacher, too, is made of *quality* and is able to keep going well when the load is heavy. Even so, it is the spark plug characteristic of teaching that makes teaching a nerve-exhausting profession and which makes long holidays necessary. Workers in many other fields do not realize the strain under which a spark plug operates, just as they may not be aware of a radio commentator's tension.

ATTRIBUTES OF A GOOD TEACHER

Teaching is both a science and an art. Teaching is a science for it requires a knowledge of basic principles as to how a person learns. It is also an art because some almost intangible attributes, in addition to very specific attributes, are required in applying the scientific principles of teaching when dealing with human beings as individuals and as groups. The attributes of a good teacher have been more or less constant in spite of changes in teaching methods from time to time. James Harold Fox, Dean, School of Education, George Washington University, wrote the following in an article entitled "Newer Instructional Practices": "Good teaching in all ages has been characterized by clear vision, broad wisdom, judicious restraint, and a fine sense of balance." (*School and Society*, July 26, 1941.)

A long list of attributes of a good teacher could be made by recalling those observed in teachers under whom one has studied. Successful teaching requires numerous attributes. Few people possess in great measure all of them. Among the excellent attributes possessed by many good teachers are the following twelve:

1. *Sincerity*—A good teacher is real, not sham; tries earnestly to make honest decisions in facing the problems of life.
2. *Interest in people*—Has a genuine interest in the welfare of others; likes people instead of usually being irritated by them; is a plus rather than a minus or neutral factor.
3. *Interest in learning and teaching*—Is a student; delights in acquiring facts and in pondering on them and in sharing his knowledge with others; has at least a fairly good command of the subject matter to be taught and enjoys the subject matter. In the fourteenth century, Geoffrey Chaucer of England wrote as follows about his scholarly clerk: "And gladly would he learn, and gladly teach." These eloquent words, found in the prologue of his *Canterbury Tales*, describe an attribute which is so very necessary in teaching.

4. *Objectivity*—Thinks intelligently in sizing up pupils and subject matter and strikes a reasonable balance of interest in both pupils and subject matter; is interested in pupils without coddling them and treats them all impartially; is as objective as desirable in dealing with people, but avoids complete objectivity so as not to treat a pupil like a pencil sharpener, a horseshoe, a toothbrush, or other inanimate article.

5. *Neat appearance*—Gives impression of cleanliness and orderliness; shows good taste in choice and wearing of clothing and in arrangement of hair.

6. *Self-control, including poise, dignity, and enthusiasm in proper balance*—Exercises self-control in the classroom and in public generally, at all times; has at least ordinary stability but not a formal type of poise and dignity of the kind which strangles enthusiasm; has a zeal for making a contribution to human welfare, but a zeal balanced by common sense.

7. *Courtesy and tact*—Is courteous and tactful in a simple and somewhat direct way; has the ability to avoid hostility to himself or herself and to the subject matter which is being taught to the learner.

8. *Patience and understanding*—Enjoys helping pupils individually, particularly when they are in need of assistance not required at a given time by the remainder of the group, and has skill in placing himself in the plight of the pupil who needs individual assistance.

9. *Ability to organize and present thoughts effectively to an individual or group*—Is familiar with the process of learning and methods of teaching; arranges in logical order the material presented, orally or in writing, such as in tests; has good manner of oral delivery—pleasing and varied tone of voice which can be heard distinctly by all to whom it is directed, and clear pronunciation of words.

10. *Ability to inspire others*—Has ability to arouse interest of pupils in subject matter and to shape wholesome attitudes while imparting facts and interpreting those facts. This ability to inspire includes a sense of the dramatic, even on a mild scale, such as might be used in approaching the solution of a geometry problem. The use of the dramatic, however, should not involve misrepresentation of fact. Teachers, like many others who speak frequently before groups, have a tendency to exaggerate or in other ways handle facts recklessly in order to make their point. This is not a good habit. Any subject matter field is so rich in startling facts that there is no need to go beyond the realm of truth in formulating challenging statements designed to inspire the pupil or to stimulate his thinking.

11. *A reasonable sense of humor*—Has ability to inject humorous remarks and illustrations when classroom procedure become tedious, without becoming a clown and destroying an atmosphere of purposeful learning; also avoids being overly reserved, or becoming a sour victim of pedagogical routine.

12. *Physical vitality*—Maintains reasonably good physical health and its corresponding vitality, through avoiding habits particularly destructive to his health and through periodic physical examinations and attention to any urgent situations which they indicate.

In an article entitled "Teaching and the Ideal Teacher" which appeared in the February, 1947, issue of *The Social Studies for Teachers and Administrators*, this writer summarized the attributes of a good teacher in the words given below:

The ideal teacher must have an intense and unceasing desire to teach, must possess good judgment, be sincere, and, in addition, must have the following four qualities:

A Wholesome Character—The ideal teacher must be a good example, for much of a teacher's effectiveness is the result of example.

An Inspiring Personality—The ideal teacher must be able to awaken interests in pupils.

A Sound Intellect—The ideal teacher must be able to understand the subject matter taught and be able to make adjustments to new situations.

A Desire and Capacity for Work—The ideal teacher must have a desire to search for truth and useful knowledge and must have the necessary physical and mental vigor to carry on extensive observations and researches.

SELECTING THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHER

Not everyone is suited to be a teacher. Numerous persons with bachelor's and advanced degrees lack the instructing ability, or the interest in people or in subject matter necessary to teach well. Such persons should not be selected to teach but many are.

A misfit in the teaching profession can, without malice, defeat well-laid plans for the education of children and youth. There are many misfits in the teaching profession. Some of them do not like to deal with people, others do not have a love for books and learning, still others simply lack the qualities of leadership. Some are mere job holders.

A misfit in fields where a person is required to direct the activities of other persons is unfortunate. Improper selection of men and women for the teaching profession is particularly unfortunate, since a teacher's job is that of exercising wholesome influences on individuals, most of whom are in a highly formative stage of life. A misfit in the teaching profession usually performs his duties in a manner which leaves much to be desired.

In general, anyone can enter the teaching profession today, regardless of temperament, leadership ability, or interest in pupils and subject matter. Hence the considerable number of misfits in the profession. All that a person need do to become a teacher is to be graduated from college and find someone in authority who will appoint him to a teaching position. If the position is in a public school, it will be necessary, in most states, to have completed certain specified subjects in a curriculum so as to secure a certificate to teach in the public schools of that state. In college the completion of much work in the subject matter field to be taught and absence of objectionable characteristics are usually all that is required of the prospective instructor.

This is not as it should be. Successful teaching requires very definite interests and abilities. Restrictions should not be erected with the primary purpose of limiting the number of persons who may become eligible to enter the teaching profession, so as to avoid an over supply of eligibles. Instead, standards should be set which will discourage and, if necessary, eliminate those who do not possess those qualities.

As intimated above, there are artificial standards for the selection of teachers and, as a result, misfits in the teaching profession. State certification systems place altogether too much emphasis on completion of many courses in educational method. State systems place too little emphasis on the prospective teacher's genuine interest in teaching and potential ability to lead and instruct. It is recognized that the measurement of genuine interest and potential ability to lead and instruct is not an easy matter. Due to the great importance of determining with fair degree of accuracy the presence or absence of these two qualities, the problem should present an interesting challenge. A more careful selection of teachers needs to be made in order to be certain that they possess the interest and ability necessary to handle teaching functions well. The selection process should start at the time pupils enter college.

Careful selection of prospective teachers will tend to eliminate those persons who enter teaching with the idea of remaining only a few years and then going on to another field. Many of those who use teaching as a stop-gap do so at the expense of the pupil. The stop-gap teacher is not likely to concentrate on doing an effective job of instructing. An important exception must be made, however, in time of teacher shortage, in the case of many women who teach for several years and then marry, for such persons teach well if they possess the necessary interest and ability. This can be the case whether or not they start with the idea of teaching for only a few years. Many of these persons return to teaching in later life if widowed or if their children are grown.

The number of misfits in the teaching profession can be reduced greatly by giving careful attention to the selection of prospective teachers at the time of college entrance and to their pre-service education and training.

A person entering college who seems to lack or seems likely not to develop most of the twelve attributes of a good teacher, listed in the preceding section of this article, should probably not be encouraged to prepare for a teaching career. This possession and potentiality of attributes, or lack of them, can be determined with some degree of reliability by preliminary screening at time of college entrance. The screening can be accomplished by skillful interviews, by review of the candidate's cumulative school record, as available, by review of family case history in brief, and by use of tests which measure (1) educational achievement and (2) aptitude for success in college. The American Council Psychological Examination by Louis Leon Thurstone and Thelma Gwinn

Thurstone and the Ohio State Psychological Examination by Herbert A. Toops are designed to measure both of these factors.

The measuring of personality and leadership of prospective teachers at the time of college entrance is important but difficult. Tests in this area are not yet entirely satisfactory, but they can be of value if administered and interpreted by a test expert and if the test results are considered along with all other facts known about the candidate. Through observation that is highly discerning, it is possible to detect, rather than completely overlook, potential leadership ability in the shy student aged 18 to 19.

Since a teacher is a leader in things intellectual and since one's intelligence is virtually a fixed quantity, the person entering college with the thought of preparing for teaching should demonstrate at least average intelligence, regardless of whether planning to be a kindergarten or a high-school teacher. Intelligent parents in rural regions, as well as in large cities, have a right to expect that the teachers of their children will have average or better than average intelligence. The intelligence quotient of the prospective teacher can be determined with a fair degree of accuracy through the use of standardized tests.

There should be much screening during the freshman and sophomore years. If by the end of the sophomore year it appears that the individual is scholarly but not suited to teaching, he should be discouraged from entering the third year of a teacher preparation curriculum. Assistance should then be given in transferring to a college course not aimed at teacher preparation. If the student is enrolled in a state teacher college, the college authorities should help the student transfer without loss of credit to the state agricultural and mechanical college, the state university, or to another college in the state. They should do this in such a way as to cast no stigma on the student and so that he will be recognized as being college material and worthy of this assistance.

Selecting persons to teach in America's schools is an enormous job. It must be faced with a considerable amount of wisdom and courage. Teacher selection should not be haphazard nor should it be accomplished as a matter of mechanical procedure.

During the past ten years there has been a shortage of teachers, especially of good teachers. With the national annual birth rate rising since 1940, and sharply in 1946 and 1947, the problem of teacher selection and preparation becomes particularly acute. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, a part of the National Education Association, has given much attention to this problem. An article by Ray C. Maul, in *The Journal of Teacher Education*, June, 1952, published by the Commission, opens with the following thought-provoking assertions: "The education of children is the fastest growing enterprise in the nation today. Not industry, not commerce, not public service, not even defense involves so many people, or so vitally affects their preparation for their responsibilities in maintaining America."

In the article Maul emphasizes the fact that for many years, up to and including 1946, the elementary-school population in the United States was twenty million, that today it is twenty-four million, and that in 1958 it will be thirty million. He states that there were nearly 600,000 teachers in elementary schools in 1946 and only slightly more than 600,000 in 1952, that only slightly more than half of these in 1952 have minimum satisfactory preparation, and that there is immediate need for 160,000 qualified teachers for elementary schools. As to the high school, Maul shows that between 44,000 and 48,000 new teachers are being employed annually but that between 1957 and 1960 the high-school population will rise sensationally and will increase the demand for new teachers at the rate of approximately five per cent yearly in the decade 1955-1965. This will mean that about 78,000 persons will need to be recruited for high-school teaching in 1965 as compared with about 48,000 in 1952.

The selection of persons to teach in colleges and universities, too, poses a problem. It has not yet been met satisfactorily. Proper selection of teaching staff is just as necessary on the college level as on the high-school and elementary levels. The teacher, in any classroom, laboratory, or shop, should be adept in the matter of stimulating others to learn and be expert in the matter of imparting knowledge.

PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The type of pre-service education and training furnished a prospective teacher has an important influence on a teaching career. It seems desirable that the first two years of a four-year college course for the prospective teacher should be devoted mainly to the securing of a broad education, one which awakens in the student's mind fundamental problems of life, and which develops systematic and thorough habits of study and clarity in oral and written expression. The last two years can be devoted largely to training (1) in methods of teaching and (2) in the facts and points of view relative to the subjects which the student plans to teach. There need not be a dichotomy, or schism, between general education and professional education (training) for teachers. There can be a reasonable blending.

In many cases, but not in all, teachers colleges are short on stressing broad concepts of life and in stressing content in the student's major and minor subject matter fields. Furthermore, with a great emphasis on the science of teaching, teachers colleges frequently are repetitive and not sufficiently thorough in training prospective teachers in problems and methods of imparting information.

Curriculum is not the only important factor in the pre-service education and training of teachers. The opportunity to observe good instruction is a factor which is almost as important as is the curriculum. The opportunity to observe good instruction throughout the four years of college is essential for the prospec-

tive teacher. He can analyze the various teaching methods used by his instructors and can adapt those methods in developing his own ability to educate. When the prospective teacher is denied the opportunity to observe good instruction, the things which he is required to read in books about the science of education may seem rather shallow to him. In teachers colleges and in liberal arts colleges there are altogether too many examples of poor instruction. This is due partly to inadequate salary scales and partly to lack of insistence over the years that good teaching is a prime objective of higher education. Faculty members who possess little ability or little desire to teach should be replaced by others who have mastered the art of teaching or who are rapidly mastering it and who enjoy practicing that art.

A recent proposal concerning pre-service education and training of teachers, made by the Ford Foundation for the Advancement of Education, has attracted much attention. The Foundation offered financial grants for setting up in all colleges in Arkansas a teacher education curriculum consisting of four years of general education to be followed by one year of professional internship. The proposal brought forth much newspaper and other comment.

Meeting in Chicago February 21-23, 1952, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, represented by persons in attendance from 253 colleges, considered this approach to pre-service education and training of teachers. The statement which the association adopted in February, 1952, is printed on pages 174-175 of the March, 1952, issue of *Progressive Education*. The statement opposes the Ford Foundation's proposal, vigorously contending that in accepting the money Arkansas would be required to put into operation a particular pattern of education without first having the opportunity to experiment with it and thus measure its value. The statement concludes with the following warning:

Domination of a state's educational system by a central agency of the United States, whether governmental or private, is extremely unwise. It is particularly unwise when the agency is a private corporation responsible to no one but its own self-perpetuating board of directors. Centralized control by the proffer of money with strings attached can be just as effective and, consequently, just as dangerous as control by regulation and dictation. We condemn attempts to control by either means.

The situation, in many teachers colleges, of being short on fundamental education and on content in major and minor fields and being repetitive and not sufficiently thorough in emphasis on teaching methods is regrettable. This situation, and numerous examples of poor instruction in teachers colleges and in liberal arts colleges, results in rather inferior pre-service education and somewhat inefficient pre-service training for thousands of prospective teachers. These conditions can be corrected, and without additional financial cost, by following the curriculum example and attempting to match the quality of instruction found in the schools of education in many colleges and universities. The improvement of the teachers college requires mainly a change of emphasis and higher

standards of instruction, and scholarship generally, than are usually found there at present.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

Certification of persons to teach in public schools is done by the respective states. It is done as a means of setting and enforcing standards for employment in the public schools of the state. If selection and pre-service education and training for prospective teachers are taken care of appropriately, certification to *start* teaching in public schools can be an almost automatic matter. It can then be presumed that everyone graduating from a teachers college, a school of education, or a department of education in a college or university is worthy of being certificated provisionally and being eligible to teach for a year to prove beginning competence and potentiality for improvement as a teacher. In the same manner it can be presumed that students graduated from any reputable college or university should be eligible for a provisional certificate to teach in public schools almost regardless of courses taken on condition the student (1) has been screened during the four years with a view to determining suitability for teaching and has demonstrated fitness for teaching, and (2) has completed an established, reasonable number of semester hours' work in methods of teaching.

This would mean that the student majoring in chemistry and spending four years in a college of arts and sciences would have an opportunity to secure a provisional certificate to teach in public schools just as would the student in a teachers college or in the school of education of a university.

Deciding whether or not the new teacher's first year in the classroom indicates suitability for continuance in the teaching profession should not rest on a hasty recommendation by one supervisor. During the year the teacher should be given an opportunity to do a variety of things to demonstrate his ability to work out and present, orally and in writing, solutions to teaching problems. For instance, the embryo teacher could be asked to recommend improvements in teaching the subjects which he is employed to teach, and to present the ideas before a group of teachers.

At the end of the year, or perhaps at the end of two years, at least two or three school administrators should review the teacher's record carefully and make a detailed report to higher educational authority as to whether or not the teacher should be given a permanent certificate. This report should probably be made to the state department of education at the state capital.

A procedure of teacher selection, pre-service education and training, and certification as described above, in contradistinction to the usual one of today, would put an emphasis on personality and leadership qualities, broad scholarship, and demonstrations of versatility in general from the time of entering college until completing a probationary year of full-time teaching.

It is recognized, however, that any procedure of teacher selection, pre-service education and training, and certification will fail if carried out perfunctorily and that a probationary period does not in itself guarantee that the unfit will be eliminated.

A GOOD TEACHER ENCOURAGES AND INSPIRES THE LEARNER

Without fanfare many teachers who may scarcely be known beyond their own community exercise a vast and unmeasurable influence over the lives of others. These teachers attend devotedly and methodically to the work of molding well the lives of children and youth in elementary and secondary schools and in colleges and universities. These teachers encourage and inspire the learner.

A good teacher delights in teaching, is enthusiastic about it and about helping pupils individually. An educator is one who encourages and inspires, who brings light to dark corners, not one who merely drills routinely, and without vision, facts into people as a matter of organized teaching.

The act of encouraging, of course, is devoid of anything which discourages. One who encourages gives help and hope, heartens, urges, and strengthens. The act of inspiring is somewhat intangible, as compared with the act of encouraging, and is a bit difficult to describe. Yet, when inspiration is lacking, the absence is noticeable as is the absence of the sun on a cloudy day.

The teacher must have some sense of the dramatic in order to present material impressively—to capture attention as a first step to inspiring the pupils. The teacher need not use eloquence or pantomime but should have the ability to convey a kind of suspense at the time of performing an experiment in the scientific laboratory or summarizing a trend in history.

One who inspires stimulates the intellect or emotions of another. The act of inspiring awakens, arouses, and animates an individual. A person in such an influential position as teacher has much opportunity to inspire.

Many teachers realize that multiplication is more difficult for some pupils than for others and that principles of chemistry are grasped much more quickly by some pupils in a class than by the remainder. A good teacher knows readily when the group or a member of it is particularly in need of encouragement and inspiration, and then does much to encourage and inspire by instructing in a way which will be interesting and challenging.

In order to encourage and inspire the learner, a teacher must have an understanding of the age group with which he is dealing. Some teachers who do a superb piece of work with senior high-school pupils might fail miserably if suddenly called upon to teach in college or in elementary school, just as an expert carpenter might find extreme difficulty in operating a machine shop.

Either or both of two factors are present in acquiring understanding of a particular age group. One of these is the teacher's preference, nature, and adaptability. The other is time. At least a bit of time is necessary to study the characteristics of the age group. Through encouragement and inspiration of a

preventive type, the good teacher avoids the situation of creating in youth a dislike for school.

Unfortunately some teachers do just a routine job year after year. Those teachers teach subject matter with little thought of teaching *pupils, as living individuals*. Those teachers repeat facts and points of view annually without encouraging and inspiring the learner. This poor and spiritless repetition does little to improve the character of those who are being taught.

Purposely or unwittingly, high-school teachers frequently give their pupils the impression that the pupil is below average intellectual ability and in other ways discourage pupils. Such practices, regardless of whether they are intentional or not, are harmful to the learner. These practices rarely produce positive, constructive reactions on the part of the learner.

In few cases are pupils encouraged and inspired by teachers who are as cold as machines or by those who at times become highly subjective. Nor are pupils likely to be encouraged and inspired by teachers who are odd to the point of being freakish. Those teachers who are domineering, unfair, sadistic, and who exercise in the classrooms their powers with a vengeance naturally tend to repel rather than attract pupils.

There is no room for sadists in the teaching profession. A sadist in the classroom is a very discouraging and cruel force. There probably have been a considerable number of this kind of teacher, especially in secondary schools, due to the opportunity to hold an ax over the heads of boys and girls whose parents are report-card-conscious. Even though the policy of a particular school may be to pass almost everyone at the end of the semester to the next higher grade, a sadistic teacher can find means of gratification. These means include humiliation of a pupil before the class, keeping him after school, requiring extra work, writing scathing comments on the report card, and the like.

When a person, who is employed to teach, forgets the authority he has over pupils and thinks about personal responsibility for the wholesome development of pupils, that person is laying a foundation upon which rests the ability to encourage and inspire the learner. Fortunately anyone can look back over his school days and recall with pleasure teachers who encouraged and inspired. Such teachers are worth far more than the salary which they receive.

EVERYONE IS WORTH ATTENTION

A good teacher knows reasonably well each of his pupils and has an interest in each. At times it is difficult for the teacher to have a genuine interest in a slow-learning or in a recalcitrant member of the group. It is, however, through believing that all are worth attention that the teacher is able to find a spark of interest or an indication of ability in those who seem the most hopeless. Upon discovering this spark, the teacher can start in a new direction those who had seemed to be hopeless.

A good teacher realizes that members of a group present many variations. The pupils are not of equal intellect, nor are they of exactly the same temperament. They are not versatile and adaptable to the same degree, and as individuals or as a group they may feel differently on different days, as for instance on the fifth consecutive day of rain or on a beautiful day shortly after spring vacation. The experienced teacher knows that frequently the human personality is a surprise package and that all, from the slow learner to the brilliant, respond to skillful attention. The teacher who sent young Thomas A. Edison home from school with a note stating that he would never be able to learn and, therefore, was not suited for school might well have given attention to Thomas rather than dismissing him.

THE GOOD TEACHER IS A CONDITIONER

It has been demonstrated by psychology that one's conduct pattern is influenced by his emotional factors as much as by his reasoning. Teachers have a duty to do a constructive job of conditioning the emotional reactions of pupils—to implant consideration rather than hate, carefully thought-out rather than hasty, ill-considered decisions, and the like. This proper conditioning of emotions is an important function of a teacher. It is as important as assisting the pupil in the developing of a manual skill or the understanding of scientific principles.

Teachers should have an influence for good on pupils, impressing the need for and duty of honest and worthy living. Pupils should be taught to take pride in their work and to develop a sense of accomplishment. This is a matter of conditioning. Without being conditioned to take pride in his work, life is likely to be rather flat and meaningless to an individual.

In order to be a successful conditioner, the teacher must *know* the pupil and build wisely on what he has learned about the pupil. Successful conditioning is mainly a matter of suggestion, not a matter of edict. A teacher needs to be a master at suggesting. This is an art. It involves sensing the interests of the pupil, which is literally a matter of mind reading.

A teacher should teach, not just disseminate information. Any good textbook or encyclopedia disseminates information. Through exercising a conditioning function, the teacher builds desirable personality traits. This conditioning has remade warped personalities, beautified others which had begun to warp, and added useful characteristics to the personalities of countless pupils.

An important conditioning function of the teacher is to teach pupils to try. A teacher who expects pupils to do their best without demanding it is an expert conditioner. In teaching it is well to assume that the pupils *want* to do well and that they will do well. When the teacher makes these assumptions and avoids letting the pupils feel that he thinks they might do otherwise, he is likely to obtain good or excellent results without direct preaching at the pupils.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

In many public school systems in the United States, teachers are provided with at least meager in-service training. In some school systems in this country noteworthy in-service training is made available.

Since teaching is a profession and deals with many tangible and intangible problems of human behavior, it becomes desirable for teachers to profit from the useful experience of each other. For the average teacher to do this on his own initiative over a long period of time is a rather tedious chore. Organized in-service training enables teachers to keep up to date with new methods of teaching and new facts and interpretations in their respective subject matter fields. The in-service training also aids teachers in further developing methods of teaching and factfinding which they already use.

In-service training for teachers is made available primarily for public school teachers. However, in-service training can be advantageous in any school or school system. On the college level increased emphasis on methods of teaching would be in order. Among the thousands of brilliant persons on college and university faculties are found some who do a miserable job of teaching. Retaining them in a teaching position as a result of acquiring a wide reputation for writing is unfair to the undergraduate.

In-service training for teachers can be carried on in many ways. Among these are enrollment in summer schools, college extension courses, various correspondence courses, attendance at teachers' meetings, and pursuit of special projects which have been assigned or approved by a school administrator.

1. *Summer schools*—Each year thousands of America's public school teachers return to a college campus during summer months to continue studying problems and methods of teaching or the subject matter field in which they are instructing. Usually these teachers enroll in two or three courses which extend for a period of six or eight weeks of rather intensive study. In recent years a considerable number of teachers who attend a summer school on a college campus enroll in a workshop and spend the entire summer session studying a teaching problem.

The salary scale for teachers in numerous school systems includes provision for increased pay upon securing college credits after entering on duty as a teacher.

2. *College extension courses*—During the school year, college extension courses are available to teachers in quite a number of towns and cities of the United States having a population of 10,000 or more, but having no college. This in-service training opportunity has in part been made available through the efforts of public school administrators in those towns and cities.

A typical procedure may run as follows: A city school superintendent arranges with a neighboring college, 50 to 75 miles distant, to have a member of its faculty hold a class one or two evenings per week in the high-school building

during the fall and spring semesters, providing a sufficient number of his teachers and other people of the town will enroll to make the extension arrangement worth while to the college. The college sends a faculty member on regular schedule to meet with the class. Those who enroll pay a tuition fee to the college. They receive instruction, testing, and college credit similar to campus students. As in summer school, the courses are likely to deal with the teacher's subject matter field or with problems and methods of teaching. The workshop technique can be used in college extension in much the same way as it is used on the campus during the summer session.

3. *Correspondence courses*—In a large city school system correspondence courses prepared by a central research staff can provide useful in-service training.

In order to be an in-service training device, the correspondence course should relate to the teacher's subject matter field or to methods of teaching. There is a paucity of correspondence courses that are suited to the needs of teachers, although correspondence courses in many fields, such as dairying, poultry raising, and carpentry, are available from state universities, state colleges, and private correspondence schools.

One lesson at a time, in a series comprising a course, is sent by mail to a teacher who enrolls in a correspondence course. The lesson contains a reading assignment and problems. The problems are to be solved by the teacher-student. The answers are to be submitted in writing to the school offering the course. A varying amount of assistance is given to the teacher, depending on the school in whose course he is enrolled.

4. *Teachers' meetings*—Two types of teachers' meetings are well known. The one type is called for the benefit of the teachers assigned to one school or of the school system of a relatively small town where all teachers are likely to know each other by name. The second type is the meeting which is held for all teachers in a rather large geographical area, such as a county, large city, or several counties. The annual teachers' institute for the public school teachers of an entire county is an example, but this is rapidly passing out of existence.

Teachers' meetings can cause the waste of much time unless they are planned carefully. At least three principles, as follows, need to be kept in mind in planning such meetings if they are to serve an in-service training purpose:

a. If lectures are to be scheduled, they should be on professional educational subjects—on methods of teaching—and should be given by persons who can lecture well and who are familiar with the subjects being scheduled.

b. Demonstrations of teaching methods by successful teachers, followed by constructive critique, are a useful in-service training technique.

c. A round-table discussion devoted to a teaching problem constitutes an effective in-service training device if attended by a small group, preferably not more than twenty teachers, who have each been urged to study the problem before the meeting and then are drawn into the discussion after a leader, or panel, has pointed up the problem and opened it for comment from the floor.

5. *Special projects*—The individual pursuit of special projects which have been assigned or approved by a school administrator can be a particularly effective means of in-service training for teachers. To both the administrator and the teacher, the special project can be an interesting approach. Both can suggest projects which they believe are worth undertaking. The project can be very tangible and pertinent, such as revision of a course in history for the tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grades.

In-service training for teachers can well take the form of discreet encouragement to do original research with a view to publishing articles in professional journals. A teacher who does almost no research can scarcely kindle in his pupils a desire to search for the truth.

All too frequently teachers are required routinely to complete additional college courses as a matter of in-service training with little thought as to whether or not this intellectual exercise will result in better teaching. Why not also give credit for academic achievement in ways other than course completion and earning of degrees? Why not give recognition for practical research, writing, and publishing, and for extensive travel to distant places?

Projects which result in the further development of leadership might also be pursued by teachers as a matter of in-service training. Among such projects would be the organizing of community activities, beyond the regular duty of a teacher, or the holding of a summer position year after year as counselor or director of a wholesome camp. Such projects will tend to stimulate leadership and its related qualities which a teacher should possess.

Assignment of teachers to employment in government, industry, or a private association for one semester each seven years would constitute a somewhat novel and no doubt a very useful form of in-service training.

If teachers could take a one-semester assignment in non-teaching endeavor several times during a teaching career, the variation in work, in most instances, would exercise a modifying and anti-stratifying influence. Such assignments could help teachers avoid becoming narrow and falling into a rut. Because of both the routine and the security in teaching, it is possible to drop out of the world of reality to some extent after a number of years of teaching. When a teacher's horizons begin to narrow he may have difficulty in recognizing typical problems which pupils will face when leaving school.

It is well to keep high-school and college teachers in touch with the outside world, the world of Main Street and of everyday hiring, firing, production, and other administrative problems, as well as with the world of the classroom, laboratory, and library. Keeping teachers in touch with reality helps avoid their becoming set in their ways.

As a matter of in-service training, it would seem practical for school systems to arrange full-time outside employment for most teachers for the last semester of each seventh year of teaching. The assignment should, of course, be one

which interests the teacher, and in some way ties in with his subject matter field. The arrangement ought to be made in such a way that the teacher will not incur reduction in salary and the school system no financial outlay, or very little. A school superintendent should be able to arrange five months of satisfactory employment in industry for a member of his staff who has taught bookkeeping, mathematics, chemistry, or physics, and the like, in high school for six and a half years, and at a salary comparable to that paid for teaching. Travel bureaus and publishing houses, for instance, can make use of the type of knowledge and leadership possessed by many teachers.

Or, an international exchange of teachers could be negotiated occasionally. For example, arrangements could be made for a high-school or college teacher in a southwestern state to change positions with a teacher in a similar school and subject matter area in Mexico. The U. S. Office of Education and the State Department of the United States can be of assistance in making such arrangements. When the exchange involves a school that is more than 3,000 miles distant, perhaps the arrangement should continue for a school year rather than for only five months.

In addition to any of the above five types of in-service training which may be provided or urged by the administrator of a school or school system, a teacher should read systematically and widely. This reading should be done as a matter of education rather than as in-service training, if we may be permitted to draw the distinction in this particular instance. The reading should be done in order to broaden the teacher's education in general. He should read current books and articles which are widely discussed and should read to increase grasp of life and understanding of people and current affairs. Summer courses in subjects beyond the teacher's subject matter field would also provide this broader background.

A teacher is a leader and should keep up to date on what is going on in the world. The teacher need not spend a large portion of his leisure time reading but should read and reflect on at least several good books and a number of magazine articles of worth annually. Such reading interests will do much to keep the teacher from falling into a rut and from falling out of touch with life. Together with in-service training urged or provided from time to time and experimentation on the part of the teacher, this systematic reading on a broad and high level will improve his competence as years of teaching experience are acquired.

Should the school administrator teach from time to time as a matter of providing himself with continuous in-service training? So frequently there is a desire among teachers to rise above teaching, yet teaching is the main function of a school. Often the classroom teacher desires to become a specialist, such as a counselor in high school, or desires to become principal of a high school or dean of a college. Many classroom teachers in secondary schools and in colleges and universities feel that they are not appreciated and that the salary and

prestige go largely to the school administrator rather than to the teacher. While busily engaged with a multitude of responsibilities, the school administrator who started as a classroom teacher may lose sight of many of the techniques involved in successful teaching. He can become unaware of quite a few of the problems facing the teachers and pupils whom he supervises. In order for the school administrator to keep in close touch with teaching methods and problems, perhaps he should teach for at least an hour a week in his own school or elsewhere, regardless of whether he is a college president, a city superintendent of schools, or a high-school principal. **THIS WE SHOULD EXPECT:**

That teachers be selected with exceeding care since they are in a position to do much good or much harm, be stimulated from time to time to retain a wholesome view towards life and people and to develop farther their qualities of leadership.

That teachers, in addition to being masters of subject matter, should like people, understand pupils, and be skillful in teaching; should set a good example and encourage and inspire pupils; in short, they should have these four qualities: teaching skill, high principles, vision, and enthusiasm for educating.

That through a considerable increase in salaries, careful selection of the new, in-service training of all, and gradual pruning of the existing staffs, America's corps of teachers, kindergarten through graduate school, be made the most constructive influence of modern times.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK WILL BE OBSERVED
NOVEMBER 7-13, 1954

THE 34th annual observance of American Education Week has been announced for the week of November 7-13, 1954, by its national sponsors: the National Education Association, the U. S. Office of Education, the American Legion, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The central theme will be "Good Schools Are Your Responsibility." Daily topics to be featured during the week are: *Sunday, Ideals To Live By; Monday, Teachers for Tomorrow; Tuesday, Investing in Good Schools; Wednesday, Working Together for Good Schools; Thursday, Effective Citizenship; Friday, Teaching the Fundamentals Today; and Saturday, How Good Are Your Schools?*

For Good Discipline, You Must Plan

JAMES M. LYNCH, JR.

MORE pupils whose surnames begin with "M" present an adjustment problem in the Alfred Vail Junior High School than any others. Contrariwise, one whose initial is "X" never causes any trouble at all. At least records show that never in the history of the school has an Xerxes or an Xipe been "sent to the office" for anything that smacks at all of a disciplinary problem.

In contrast to others which seem to be quite defensible, these are two of the lighter, and ridiculous, conclusions drawn from a continuing study of who gets into "trouble" in the Alfred Vail Junior High School, and why. The study has been made for the last several years as part of a continuing effort to improve the professional efforts of the staff and combat the age-old cry of the grown-up generation that youngsters aren't "disciplined" anymore.

The philosophy extant at the Alfred Vail Junior High School is grounded on the premise that all the youngsters, regardless of their ethnic and religious backgrounds, have dignity and, as individuals, are important and "improvable." To believe otherwise, the faculty feels, would have us fly in the face of the accepted American principle that education is "growth" and the educator's main job is to stimulate and direct the growth process.

Within the framework of our own organization, we have generalized the study results at hand to the following extent: (1) there is no appreciable difference between men and women teachers, or younger and older teachers in their ability to exercise classroom control that will virtually eliminate extremes of impulsiveness and submission to authority, provided they are alert to what goes on around them and willing to learn and use those sound principles of good human relations recently particularized in research; (2) the number of discipline referrals to the office ebb and flow according to the kind of job an individual teacher does in planning, motivating, and presenting the period's work and are a good barometer of school morale; (3) that it is possible to organize both a school and an individual classroom in such a way as to avoid many situations which cause trouble; (4) that a friendly teacher-pupil relationship is the single most important factor in avoiding disciplinary problems; and (5) that much can be gained from developing techniques where pupils participate in classroom and school control and determine their own behavior.

Matters of discipline in the Alfred Vail Junior High School are not unlike those found in many other schools over the country faced with similar con-

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ditions. They range from disorder on the school busses to faulty personality adjustments with only two of them subject to immediate and prescribed punishment: smoking on the school grounds, and leaving the school grounds without permission. In all other cases the punishment, if any, is designed to fit "the crime" since, by so-doing, it is hoped to avoid the all-too-common error of mistaking uniformity of action for justice.

Since staff changes in schools are the rule rather than the exception these days, a soundly based, consistent philosophy of discipline which will bring about and maintain in the student body "orderliness, self-control, and predictability in behavior without losing spontaneity and relaxed enjoyment of life" requires that the school principal do two things: indoctrinate new teachers in the methods and practices which seem to work in that particular environment, and inspire the experienced teachers to review such fundamental matters as human relations and mental hygiene and act in accordance with the principles they accept.

FACULTY CONFERENCE

Early in each school year, the Alfred Vail Junior High School faculty devotes at least one faculty meeting to the general subject of discipline. There the effort is made to develop a consistent approach to the problem and review principles which the staff has approved before. Perhaps it will be agreed upon to use Harry Overstreet's strong statement that every individual needs "(1) to be justly treated; (2) to be in a situation which makes sense; (3) to receive personal recognition; (4) to feel himself part of something significant; and (5) to be getting somewhere." Or some of the recommendations of the National Child Labor Committee urging schools to "... know the student as an individual; obtain the student's confidence; recognize early signs of trouble; and provide a program where all students can experience achievement" will be accepted, perhaps, as a starting place for the year's endeavors.

In so far as the brand new teacher is concerned, an additional period of indoctrination is in order. Great effort is made to have the teacher distinguish between a situation which normally should be corrected without referral to "higher authority" and a "problem," the solution of which may require the use of clinical services and the expert advice of counselors, administrators, and supervisors.

"Situations," it is pointed out, seldom occur in some classrooms because the master teacher is able to meet them before they arise. By being sincere, enthusiastic, and interested in his job especially when teaching slow-learning groups, such a teacher makes the pupils feel welcome and at ease. In addition, when setting the *modus operandi*, the master teacher explains why certain regulations or procedures are necessary; asks pupils for their advice occasionally and accepts it thoughtfully; and makes certain that all requests and assignments made

meet the following conditions: (1) that each pupil understands what is expected of him; (2) that he is mentally and physically able to comply with the instructions; (3) that he believes that what is being asked of him is necessary and in his best interest.

To handle situations which do arise, the new teacher is urged to use persuasion first and coercion when, and if, necessary. The persuasion may come through a "talking through" of the opportunities afforded to those who comply or the establishment of new or additional incentives. The offer to display outstanding work, to grant special privileges, or to release the pupil from other somewhat onerous obligations are rather obvious examples of this type of appeal.

While suspension, loss of other school privileges, and similar penalties which tend to make a pupil fearful of the consequences of doing wrong are widely held by educators today to be the prerogative of the principal only, the new teacher is encouraged to use the milder forms of coercion as a more forceful means of persuading pupils to act in an acceptable manner. The invitation to "see me after class," the changing of a disturber's seat, and even an infrequent "chewing out" on an impersonal basis certainly have their merits during long-wearing periods when the goals to be attained seem too distant to have any immediate effect as incentives.

Warnings are also given to the new teacher at this time against the use of such dubious and back-firing devices as sarcasm, "biting" remarks, and the like where a teacher has a decidedly unfair advantage; corporal punishment (which is illegal in some states); name-calling like liar, cheat, dumbbell, *etc*; and such out-dated and out-moded techniques as standing pupils in the halls or cloakrooms. The teacher who descends to using such means invariably brings down utter dislike and hatred on his head, if not open rebellion, and loses forever the fine interplay of personalities so necessary if the learner is to learn what the teacher is teaching.

More serious from the educational standpoint, and, therefore, requiring even more careful attention, is the disciplinary problem which might involve such overt acts as stealing, lying, chronic irascibility, rudeness, or disobedience. Such matters usually are slow coming to a head but, when they do arise, they must be promptly dealt with lest other pupils quickly follow suit because, to them, the need for co-operating is no longer apparent.

CAREFUL STUDY OF ALL CASES ESSENTIAL

To handle "problems" the teachers are urged to develop a scientific method of approach. Under such a plan it is necessary to assemble all the facts: through examination of the school's cumulative records and through determination of the opinions and feelings of former teachers and others who have known him well. When all the evidence attainable is in, it is necessary to weigh the various

factors and to consider the effect of this decision or that on the individual, the group, and the school before attempting the solution which seems most likely to succeed.

After action has been taken, it is necessary to evaluate the result by looking for changes in attitude, relationships with fellow pupils, or work accomplished. If the action had the desired effect, all is well and good. If it didn't, it may be necessary to start over again or at least to try one of the alternative solutions suggested in the original study.

In the Alfred Vail Junior High School, the principal welcomes the opportunity to assist in solving teacher problems whether they be disciplinary ones or not. When he assumes this responsibility, it is understood that he is not obligated or expected to take drastic action in the matter at once, but is entitled to pursue the same steps of investigation, weighing evidence, and deciding on the proper action as did the teacher.

During the past four years, records show that the principal of the Alfred Vail Junior High School has counseled with 232 pupils on varying matters. Approximately seventy-five per cent of the disciplinary cases were solved to the extent that a proper and reasonably long-term adjustment was made. In the remaining twenty-five per cent of the cases, conferences with the parents were deemed necessary to obtain additional information, to elicit their cooperation in getting the pupil to understand what is expected of him and why, or to get them to bring pressure to bear so that the pupil obeyed constituted authority either willingly or unwillingly.

Adequate classroom and school control which should be somewhere between the extremes of complete conformance to rigid rules and regulations and a *laissez-faire* attitude that breeds contempt of all authority can be had, we are convinced, in the schools of modern America. And it can be had without sacrificing that spontaneity and buoyancy of spirit which makes working with young people so desirable! It is accomplished by planning for it in a freedom-from-fear atmosphere brought about by a sound philosophy of life and education and by continually evaluating the techniques used in light of the results attained.

PTA Programs at the Senior High School Level

CHARLES E. BISH

UNTIL last year our parent-teacher programs were not clicking. We were aware of this, but we accepted the situation as beyond our control, and for some good reasons. The state organization (District of Columbia Congress of Parents and Teachers) was doing an excellent job at the city-wide level. We had a fine, active local executive committee. The number of parents who joined our local PTA was satisfactory. When we needed money, the PTA became busy and came through. The back-to-school night or choral group performances brought out good crowds. No one in the PTA was trying to run the school. What more could one ask?

There were several questions which concerned us. The pupils (a substantial number of them at least) ages fifteen to eighteen, were either not concerned about our PTA or thought that, since they were reaching young adulthood, their relationship with the school was largely their own business. A good many parents who had been active in elementary and in junior high-school PTA work now wanted a rest, particularly when they received no encouragement from their grown-up children. Perhaps the PTA at the senior high-school level was psychologically incompatible with the tenth to twelfth grade age.

THE PROCEDURE

We've been carrying on an experiment for about a year. We think it's a promising procedure at the senior high-school level. Each home room has one PTA meeting during the year. The home-room teacher and the pupil spend a good many of the 25-minute home-room periods planning for their Parent Night. Many home rooms have followed this pattern: interview parents concerning what they would like to have included in the agenda; invite the people needed—principal, assistant principal, counselor, or president of the PTA; draft a letter to each parent indicating that there will be a program in accordance with indicated interests; call each parent on the telephone and arrange for baby sitters where necessary; arrange for a room in the school where the chairs can be formed in a circle and where a portable blackboard is available; make sure all pupil records, standard test results, and interest inventories are available; arrange for simple refreshments (coffee and cookies); see that the refreshments are served at the beginning or very near the beginning of the meeting;

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and, finally, see that the parents come. One member of the executive committee is always present. The PTA pays for the refreshments. The school pays for the mailing of letters and other incidentals. A committee of pupils assists with the meeting.

We've made a few observations. It seems advisable not to have more than two or three home-room meetings on the same evening. We've tried having two home-room groups meet together. This worked only when the grade levels were the same. The most essential factors are to achieve a relaxed atmosphere for the meeting, to have home-room teachers fill the role of group discussion leaders, to have free discussion of parents with parents, to have information available as needed, to let the discussion go into whatever area the parents desire, to summarize from time to time the consensus expressed by parents about the problems under discussion, and to answer any and all questions which may be raised frankly and honestly, making sure that the status of each person present is safeguarded.

RESULTS

At present, we have only tentative data on which to base an evaluation. One item, for example, is that a substantial percentage of the people who attended the first fifteen meetings had not attended PTA meetings previously. Comments from parents are most encouraging. More important, the pupils say that they think the job they are doing is worth while and that they like the idea. Almost all of them either want or do not object to their parents attending. We have more parents contacting our counselors with helpful suggestions rather than about "crises situations." Our paid membership hasn't increased over last year, but we think our meaningful participating membership has increased over one hundred per cent.

Attending all these small meetings! It's a big job for the principal, the assistant principal, and the counselors; but, if it is good for the school, it is worth it to them.

Group Dynamics, Parents' Nights, and Consequences

KENNETH L. FISH

MOST supervisors and administrators find it difficult actually to get started with one of the most basic phases of supervision—a consideration of the school's philosophy. How do you do it? You certainly don't go into a faculty meeting and announce, "This afternoon we're going to decide what the philosophy of education of this school is." This would be as doctrinaire and stifling an introduction as could be imagined to any problem. It would arouse but slight response in teachers who are beset with such problems as how to get in the extra rehearsals necessary to a successful senior class play and what to do about the three boys in English IIA who simply cannot read.

A solution to this dilemma of practically justifying a consideration of basic questions of educational philosophy was found at Ashland Community High School. At a faculty meeting last fall, one item on our agenda was "Observation of American Education Week." Several proposals were made—presenting a film, having parents visit school during the week, running a school session of abbreviated periods in the evening and having parents attend their children's classes, and simply having open house with refreshments so that parents might talk with teachers about their children's problems. The merits of each of these suggestions were weighed, but the one which aroused most interest was a program whose primary focus would be panel discussion groups—the panels consisting of three or four teachers, the audience being invited to participate, and the choice of topics to be governed by parents' interests.

In this first planning session, besides arriving at this general scheme, it was decided to send to parents a sort of preliminary invitation, ending with a list of seven discussion questions. Parents were asked to check those questions which most interested them, write in any other questions which they would like discussed, and return the slips the next day by their children. It was felt that this device would not only make our final selection of topics better, but that it would also give the parents a sense of participation in our program planning which would increase attendance and be a good initial step in promoting one of the themes in which we were interested for American Education Week—that parents have an important role as co-workers with the school in the educational process.

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After compiling parent responses to our original list of seven topics—(1) Should my son or daughter plan on college? (2) Why is the homework that pupils have today so much different than when I was in school? (3) Why do they have so many clubs and other extra activities? (4) Just what does it mean to be a teacher in today's schools? (5) Are schools making subjects too easy in order to make them appeal to pupils? (6) What practical use is the education that my child is getting going to do for him? and (7) How do they mark at high school; what do the marks mean?—we arrived at these topics for our four panels:

1. Should higher education be encouraged among the pupils of our high school?
2. What is the system of ranking and what do the ranks mean to the pupil and his prospective employees?
3. Why are there so many clubs and other extra activities at school?
4. What practical use is the education that my child is getting?

A notice was placed on the faculty bulletin board advising teachers of the results of our poll, and inviting them to indicate the panel on which they wished to serve by signing their name under its title. In this way the membership of the panels was decided within two days.

At the next faculty meeting the question was brought up, "What shall we do about the fact that parents coming to our American Education Week program will construe statements of panel members to represent the policy of the faculty as a whole?" One teacher said that panel members should state at the outset that they were expressing only their own views. Another replied that this would be forgotten in the heat of the ensuing discussion. Still another said parents had a right to expect the school to have a unified viewpoint on the issues which we were going to discuss. The latter view finally prevailed, leading to the question, "How can the panels express the views of the faculty as a whole in their discussions?" Obviously, this would require finding out what this faculty-as-a-whole-viewpoint was.

Toward this end, we decided to have a series of three special faculty meetings in which the faculty as a whole would "prime" the panels for their performance. In these meetings, the panel chairmen were the discussion leaders (following the group dynamics tradition that leadership should reside in competence and function, and not in status). To remind the panel members of the direct and practical sort of questions which they could expect from parents, the principal and some of the teachers adopted a role-playing technique, assuming the roles of parents. This permitted the asking of some questions about teachers' policies and practices which otherwise could hardly be done without arousing some resentment or defensiveness. So enthused were the teachers about our project at this point that they decided to have one special luncheon meeting to discuss the topic of one of our panels. Time was getting short.

It occurred to us that the faculty's policy-decise on grading would be valuable to have in a permanent form, so that we might be able to consult it from time to time and so that, in the future, new teachers might be easily oriented in this matter. To accomplish this, the chairman of the panel on this topic recorded our preliminary discussion of this topic on the tape recorder and, from this, later distributed a mimeographed brief on the subject. The faculty voted to adopt this as a statement of our policy in grading.

There had been one or two instances of teachers mentioning to the principal their interest in forming a PTA group for the high school. This seemed the strategic time to bring it up before the faculty as a whole. They were unanimous in their support of it—"provided it be kept informal, avoid parliamentary red tape, and stress participation."

Our last planning session ended with the principal giving some tips on successful discussion leading—arranging seating around a table or in a semicircle, throwing some questions back to the audience, and constructing provocative, hypothetical cases.

The American Education Week program was a success. A large number of parents came, attracted by the panel topics, by the musical selection by pupils which began the program, and by curiosity about the new members of the faculty. At the close of these general activities in the auditorium, the panel topics were announced and husbands and wives were asked to confer for a moment as to which one they would attend. It was thought that this would prevent their not attending any, or all following one or two leaders into any one panel. They were also told of the possibility of repeating parents' night at school once a month and were asked to consider this during the evening.

During the social period with refreshments with which the evening closed, many parents indicated their interest in follow-up meetings. Many commented about the new insights that they had received about the rationale of our co-curricular program and about their appreciation of a number of the problems that teachers had to face which they had never before realized. We, at Ashland, recommend this sort of project to any faculty which is interested in a purposeful consideration of some of the basic issues in education, in improving its skill in group dynamics, and in interpreting its program to the public.

Talking Things Over

J. D. MacCONNELL

DISCUSSION is a part of the daily routine in almost every field of activity—politics, law, business, and education. It is a means of acquiring new knowledge, of exchanging ideas and of standardizing principles, procedures, and techniques. Without it, no co-operative undertaking can run smoothly or attain its highest degree of efficiency.

But for discussion to be productive of results that are commensurate with the time consumed, it must be a free-and-easy exchange of ideas and all members of the group must participate. Of little value, indeed, is the discussion in which the members express only those ideas or opinions that they have reason to believe will meet with approval. Still more useless is the discussion that is monopolized by one or two speakers.

We have all, at one time or another, sat in at conferences during which most of our thinking was directed at various ways we might more profitably be spending the time that we were wasting in pointless, unproductive discussion. It is the purpose of this article to describe briefly the various types of discussion groups and to offer a few suggestions that will help to eliminate purposeless, unprofitable discussion.

TYPES OF DISCUSSION GROUPS

Discussion may be formal or informal. Talks in the family circle, in mess halls and wardrooms, in churches, clubs, or around the cracker barrel at the country store are generally informal discussions. When people "talk things over," they are displaying the characteristic features of an informal discussion.

Formal discussion groups establish procedures and follow regular parliamentary practices. The *panel*, the *debate*, the *forum*, and the *symposium* are examples of the formal type of discussion group. But, whether informal or formal, discussion groups are worth while only when they develop orderly thought that leads to action.

The Panel

A panel discussion is held by a selected group of persons and a leader in front of an audience which joins in later. The panel is conversational—no speeches as such, but rather a free-and-easy exchange of ideas.

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When the group is too large for all to take part, the panel discussion serves best. When the group numbers more than fifty, panels have a definite advantage. Four to ten persons make a good number for a satisfactory panel. Six to eight, in addition to the leader, is usually considered ideal. This makes a group small enough for genuine conversation, yet large enough for variety. The panel gets important facts and different viewpoints out into the open, stimulates audience thinking, and encourages wider participation later.

Much of the success of a panel depends on the resourcefulness of the chairman. His job is well done when he holds discussion to the question, keeps one or two panel members from monopolizing the discussion, and insures that the speakers are heard by the audience.

The Debate

The debate is a regulated discussion of a given proposition between two matched sides as a test of their forensic ability. The debate has lost in its popularity during the past few years. However, it is still used extensively in training college and high-school students in organizing and presenting controversial subject matter in a well-organized manner. The audience does not participate and the decision as to the winning team is made by selected judges who are chosen in this capacity because of their training and experience in the forensic field.

The Forum

The forum, best known as the public forum, is one of the oldest kinds of organized discussions. Here, one or more experts give their views before an audience. Later the whole group is given an opportunity to agree or disagree. This type of discussion technique combines the use of expert testimony and skillful procedures for securing the opinions of the audience. A public forum has:

1. A problem of sufficient general interest to arouse group discussion.
2. A group of people desiring to clarify their thinking on a selected problem.
3. A discussion leader who is experienced in leading.
4. An opportunity for the audience to ask questions and for the leader to get the reactions of the audience.

The Symposium

In the symposium, two or more competent speakers present different aspects of the same problem in prepared speeches. The speakers are chosen because they are authorities on the subject matter for discussion. It is not uncommon for these presentations to be published later in professional magazines. A successful symposium gives the audience well-organized statements relating to

selected aspects of the same problem. A symposium is therefore formal and quite dignified. The audience is seldom provided an opportunity to express its views. The symposium is a discussion with high standing in scholarly circles.

Guided Informal Discussion Groups

Informal discussion groups meet to hold conversation so that people may exchange views without observing the rules of more highly organized groups. There are no prepared questions or planned speeches, and the group may roam over several topics, often quite unrelated.

Success of the final outcome cannot be foreseen in all of its details in any discussion; but the chances for an enlarged, broader viewpoint, which is the greatest single achievement of any meeting, are more likely to take place when planning has played an important part. The informal discussion tends to change the thinking of the participants by bringing ideas and situations to the surface and orienting the participants to individual and group problems.

PLANNING THE DISCUSSION

To be successful, informal discussion should have one or many objectives, depending upon the number of topics being discussed. The objective may be to improve lesson plans, to devise a better system of supervision of classroom instruction, to improve student morale, to devise means of cutting down failures, organizing a recreation program, or any one of a number of other problems. However, the subject chosen should be a problem that is foremost in the minds of those taking part in the discussion. Once the group realizes the possibilities of the discussion technique, other topics not so important can be discussed; but to start the ball rolling, the selected topic must stir up the thinking of the group assembled. A subject that may be paramount in the mind of the leader could be of little interest to those selected to take an active part in the discussion.

Another matter to be considered in planning the discussion is the number who will participate. If possible, discussion groups should be limited to a maximum of ten participants, although a smaller number on some topics will prove more successful. The group should be kept small in size, but it should have sufficient participants to stimulate the kind of discussion that will cover the topic or topics thoroughly.

When planning a conference, one must remember that, although there are a small number of participants, they will express a number of opinions on the topic gained through years of training and experience. When the problems are thrashed out and the conference draws to a successful or unsuccessful conclusion, the participants depart and become active in a continuation of the discussion either in the home or wherever similar interest groups meet.

USE OF VISUAL AIDS

The success of any one of the methods of discussion presented for "talking things over" will be dependent upon the leader's complete and effective preparation. Panel members and discussion leaders should be well versed in the purposes, procedures, methods, and expected outcomes of guided discussions. Visualizing these elements will save time, stimulate interest, and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the objectives and the pattern of the proposed conference. In order to visualize the conference, the preparation and utilization of appropriate visual aids are necessary.

The *blackboard* is an excellent aid to have ready at all times. A group leader should include its use in his plans, for there often will be issues raised by the group that can best be clarified by using the blackboard.

Charts and *posters* are interest-creating devices which should not be forgotten in planning for the discussion. Designing a helpful chart is time consuming, but the results will be gratifying.

Models, mock-ups, and projected aids (slides, films, etc.) are being used in an increasingly large number to illustrate areas that otherwise are difficult to explain to a group.

THE FUNCTION OF THE DISCUSSION LEADER

The leader is always in charge of the entire meeting. It is his function to introduce the subject, guide the discussion, and bring it to a successful close. In this, he must ever remain alert.

The qualifications and duties of a good leader are

1. In opening, he will emphasize that *everyone* is to take part.
2. He must know techniques of procedure to be followed.
3. He should be able to create interest in the subject of the discussion.
4. He should keep the informal discussion atmosphere by having all members, including himself, remain seated when talking.
5. He should have a deep and abiding faith in people—a conviction that the collective wisdom and good judgment of the members are almost always better than the wisdom and judgment of any single person in the group.
6. He should start and close on time.

The physical items the leader should check are

1. Arranging group so each person can see every other person.
2. Providing table space for leader and entire group.
3. Having blackboard, chalk, and eraser ready for use.
4. Attending to proper lighting.
5. Checking ventilation.

SOME HINTS ON BETTER TECHNIQUES

How members best participate in group discussions

1. By not rambling, but by speaking to the point.
2. By speaking loud enough to be heard.
3. By not making speeches, but by contributing in a conversational tone.
4. By listening to what is being said.
5. By trying not to show off.

One should participate

1. Only when he has something to say directly bearing on the point at issue.
2. When an error can be corrected tactfully.
3. When he has additional information that will help clarify points under discussion.
4. When he can contribute a bit of humor to add life to an otherwise dry discussion.

Individuals who may obstruct

1. The *voice of experience* who prefaces his remarks with long tales of personal experience.
2. The *banger-on* who holds to a point after others have gone on.
3. The *cure-all* who has one solution for all problems.
4. The *isolationist* who has only one or two fields of specialization.
5. The *ramificationist* who wants to take in all minute details.
6. The *rambler* who goes on and on.
7. The *simplificationist* who reduces everything to two or three elementary principles. He ignores complexity.
8. The *mute* who says nothing.
9. The *table-thumping loud speaker*.
10. The *parliamentarian* who injects Robert's *Rules of Order* into everything.
11. The *funny boy* who has a joke or crack at every turn.

CONCLUSION

The discussion should answer these questions positively:

1. What problems within my own activity do I feel best qualified to attack?
2. What changes do I hope to make in administrative-instructor-trainee relationships, in guidance in the training program or in other areas?
3. What practical suggestions and what stimulation have I received from the discussion group?
4. What issues, plans, programs, or policies have been clarified in my own mind with reference to my own educational or training activity?

5. Have I received encouragement to proceed in the direction I am moving or have I seen warning signals indicating dangers to be avoided?
6. Wherein do I have a better understanding of in-service training?

Closing the Conference

The good results of discussion meetings are sometimes decreased because the leader does not know how to close the discussion effectively. As a result, the meeting drags on until it finally breaks up because of the late hour or the general dissatisfaction of the group. The leader has the real responsibility for bringing the meeting to a successful conclusion.

1. He should adjourn the conference promptly at the time agreed upon or when real interest is clearly decreasing.
2. He should plan to have a short closing talk summarizing the main points of decisions of the discussion.
3. He should close a discussion with a procedure that will develop a feeling of unity and good fellowship. Often a short closing statement stressing the values of the conference or a good story will suffice.

Evaluating the Conference

Too few conferences are critically evaluated, but one effective way to improve conferences is to recognize the advantage of such evaluation. It is not enough for the leader to be satisfied. The test of a successful discussion is the degree of satisfaction expressed by those who have participated or listened. Significant questions are:

1. Did most of the discussion relate to the purposes and issues that had been defined in the preliminary planning?
2. Did all of the participants acquire a better understanding of the basic issues, or did the discussion tend to muddy the waters?
3. Did the conference pave the way for intelligent actions on decisions by those in attendance?
4. Did everyone leave with the feeling that his time had been well spent?

Talking Things Over Is a Must

Try to select the type of discussion that is the most appropriate, but whether or not the formal or informal discussion, or parts of both, is used is seldom the determining point in a successful discussion. The main objective is to arrange for those concerned in any administrative or instructional situation to "talk things over" before moving ahead too rapidly. Encouraging an easy flow of ideas creates a team spirit. By taking part in a discussion or sitting in as one of the audience, every man becomes an intricate part of the whole. He knows the thinking of those responsible for making the necessary changes, and he feels free to add his suggestions. *Their* plans become *our* plans, and only *we* can make any program a complete success.

Ethics in Teacher Placement

IN ORDER that the teacher placement offices in educational institutions in the state of Illinois be enabled to render the most effective and professional service to teaching candidates and employing schools, it is deemed advisable that placement officers and all administrative officers seeking new teachers adhere to the following code¹ of ethics:

A. INSTITUTIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

1. The work of the placement officer is an integral part of the process of selection, guidance, education, and induction of teachers into the teaching profession. Placement officers should endeavor to clarify this position in the minds of public school administrators and staffs of educational institutions engaged in the training of teachers.

2. Academic departments should be consulted regarding candidates, but the responsibility for final recommendation rests with the placement officer.

3. Placement officers will work toward the goal of universal acceptance of the principle that placement services should be a part of the educational services offered by the institution.

B. PLACEMENT PROCEDURES

Placement Officers Should

1. Make services available to employers at any reasonable time. The sending of papers or referral of candidates should not be made without specific request of permission from the prospective employer.

2. Attempt to secure complete information about positions before selection and referral of candidates.

¹ The Illinois Teacher Placement Association composed of the placement officers of the forty-six four-year colleges offering programs of teacher education has adopted a new Code of Ethics for the placement of teachers, designed to improve professional relations with the schools.

This instrument which has borrowed freely in its format from a similar statement from the Western Institutional Teacher Placement Association is designed to improve professional relations in the state of Illinois. The code emphasizes such items as institutional relations, placement procedures, and relations of placement officers with applicants and with employers. It seeks to clarify the appropriate role of the various individuals who contribute to the making of a teaching contract. Copies of the code may be obtained by writing to the president of the Illinois Teacher Placement Association, Dr. V. F. Dawald, Director of Teacher Placement, Milliken University, Decatur, Illinois; or to Dr. Martin H. Bartels, Director of Placement, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Illinois.

3. Make a careful pre-selection of candidates and limit the number of nominations to employers. Candidates will not be recommended until information concerning them is available.
4. Encourage the policy of the selection of teachers on the basis of merit.
5. Keep in mind that the welfare of the school and the teacher is best served when the applicant will be well adjusted in that locality.
6. Establish a reputation for fairness and objectivity through businesslike practices.
7. Respect the right of decision on the part of applicants or employers without later prejudice.
8. Deal only with official employing personnel of institutions, avoiding identification with local partisan groups or persons, never using pressure tactics on employers or candidates.
9. Respect the confidential nature of statements of recommendation.
10. Send to employers only those recommendations for which original or certified copies are on file in the placement office.
11. Furnish the inter-institutional exchange registrations which are complete and honest.
12. Insist on applicants being forthright and honest in respect to signed contracts or verbal understandings with employers.
13. Attempt to educate employers to the point of view of assisting and encouraging the employee to obtain genuine professional growth and advancement.

C. RELATIONSHIPS WITH APPLICANTS

Placement Services Should

1. Respect the desires and instructions of applicants regarding the presentation of their candidacy for positions.
2. Counsel with applicants with the objective in mind of making them understanding of and co-operative with the placement service in their search for positions and encourage individual efforts which are ethical and effective.
3. Discourage the random broadcasting of letters of application or sets of papers. Candidates should contact administrators before requesting that papers be sent.
4. Notify candidates of openings immediately upon receipt of an order and keep an accurate office record of time and date of notification.

5. Keep inviolate the confidential information secured from applicants or employers.

6. Teach applicants how to work efficiently, courteously, and ethically with placement offices, other applicants, and employers.

D. RELATIONSHIPS WITH EMPLOYERS

Placement Services Will

1. Work with employers in an attempt to improve personnel practices in the areas of:

- a. Order listing
- b. Interviewing
- c. Selection decisions
- d. Recommending statements for currently employed or former employees
- e. Reducing travel and application expense to a minimum or, if possible, assist with travel expense
- f. Informing candidate that his application has been received and informing him and the placement office regarding the decision reached as soon as possible.

2. Not press to fill openings for which no qualified applicants are available, but will recommend other member institutions as sources for possible recruitment.

3. Not discuss the practices or personnel of other member institutions with employers or candidates.

4. Avoid being placed in the position of declaring the one best applicant for the employer. (Placement officers rarely know.)

5. Not withhold information about an applicant which the employer should know before reaching a decision.

6. Remind employers of the confidential nature of recommending statements and caution them about discussing the statements found in the papers with applicants.

7. Encourage the development of sound salary policies.

8. Handle all business with dispatch, being particularly careful to meet prescribed deadlines, interview schedules, and election schedules.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Institutional placement offices are staffed with professional people whose income is not dependent on the volume of placements made. The officers have responsibilities to schools served, to the training institutions, and to the applicant. The achievement of improved professional status for placement persons will be accomplished by the practice of ethical standards in every-day operations.

A Realistic Technique for the In-service Training of Teachers

DWANE R. COLLINS
THEODORE M. SIMON

BRINGING TEACHING TO LIFE

THERE is within the psyche of most teachers a persistent hope of becoming a better teacher. Experience has shown that teachers are both born and made. It is possible for all teachers to improve the quality of their instruction. The best teacher and the poorer teacher each has the possibility of being a better teacher. The perfect teacher does not exist on this earth.

A few teachers whose training and experience have given them a zest for learning and experimentation have been able to improve their own techniques single handedly. The most of us need stimulation and encouragement from others. When this source of aid is tapped, one of the most difficult problems is to make the concept of the teaching technique realistic and meaningful to the learner. This article proposes a technique by which this difficulty can be, in a large measure, resolved. The technique is now being vigorously used by the staff of the Instituto Tecnológico de Aeronáutica in Sao José dos Campos, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

Visitation to actual classrooms

Concepts tend to become more real to the learner if he can experience them through his basic senses. Opportunities to see the activities of a teacher and pupils, to hear the interacting conversation, and to feel the atmosphere created by the teacher and his pupils as they work together provide living experience for the teacher-learner in either preservice or inservice activities.

Finding an opportunity for teachers to visit an actual class presents some problems. These problems, however, are solvable if there is a will to provide the opportunity. First, someone must take the initiative in creating this desire. It may come from one of the staff, from the administration, or from a visiting educator. Once the desire to move forward is created, the difficulties will be resolved.

First some teacher must invite the other members of his department or entire staff to visit one of his classes. It is highly important that this act be a voluntary one. In a university, the physical possibility of a visitation is gen-

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erally quite possible because most professors do not teach every class hour of the day. Thus they would be free at some hour to visit a colleague's class. At ITA where this was not possible, one department had the students "take over" all the classes except the one which was to be visited. Such action requires very careful planning by the professor so that the student-taught class will be successful. A second department, in which all of the professors taught the same periods, secured the co-operation of the students and moved their usual class to a late afternoon hour when the visiting colleagues could be free. In public schools it is quite possible that the students of other classes could attend an auditorium program or even be given a holiday. It is the feeling of the authors that the improved teaching techniques which will result fully justify the loss of school time on the part of the students.

As part of the arrangements for the visitation, the demonstrating professor must make sure that a sufficient number of chairs are available to accommodate his class and the visitors (which may number from three or four to thirty). He also may wish to tell his students of the coming visitation, or he may not even mention it and carry on as usual. Visitors should arrive early and take seats in the back of the room. Some may choose to take notes. It goes without saying that the visitors should absolutely abstain from conversing with each other or in any manner distract the teacher or students.

Use of the "Buzz Session" in Making the Observation More Meaningful

After the class visitation the teachers agree upon a period for discussions of the observations at a time in which all of the teachers can be present for at least a two-hour period. The meeting place should have a blackboard; the same classroom in which the class was observed seems to increase the recall activity of the teachers. A chosen leader from the group explains that the group is to be formed into smaller groups of three to six members. If the large group is between six and twelve, the small groups should have three members each; if the large group is larger than twelve, the small groups should be increased up to six members. The leader explains that, after the small groups are formed, each group is to select a chairman who will report back to the large group. The small groups will also each need a secretary to write down the ideas of the group. It may be the chairman of the small group or another member. Either arrangement works well.

The leader explains further that the duty of the small group is to write down all of the good teaching techniques that each visitor saw in the demonstration class. The leader should also point out that it seems to be unprofitable for members of the small groups to discuss the merits of a technique observed. The group should simply list every technique any one of its members felt was a good one. When this is clearly understood by all, the leader directs the physical grouping of the teachers into small conversational circles. Where

chairs are movable, the procedure is an easy one. Where chairs are secured to the floor, the teachers sitting in every other row, beginning with the first row, can turn their shoulders to face the teachers behind them to form the small groups. Before the leader becomes a member of a group, he should see that the "stragglers" are moved into a working group.

As the groups work and converse, a general "buzzing" is heard. It is this "buzzing" by which the technique gets its name "buzz session." The leader, in addition to participating in a group, should observe when some of the groups seem to be dying down or running out of ideas. He should then rise, get the attention of all and say, "You have two more minutes to prepare your reports."

At the end of two minutes, the leader should ask for a volunteer to write the reports from each group on the blackboard under the title, "Good Teaching Techniques We Observed." He then calls on each group chairman to read the list of good teaching techniques observed. As the items are read the entire group should be encouraged to help eliminate duplicated items which the different groups report. The leader should ask another teacher to write down on paper, for future use, the items as they are listed on the board. If time is of a high premium, the leader could send all the chairman of the small groups to the blackboard at once to write the contributions of their groups. This will probably result in less learning on the part of the participants and should be used as an emergency measure only.

When the above task is completed the procedure should be repeated to secure further good teaching technique ideas. This time the leader explains that each contribution from each small group member must be prefaced by "If I had taught the class, I would have. . . ." When the small groups have completed their work, some teacher should write the small groups' contributions on the blackboard as before, but under the title, "Had *we* taught the class, we would have. . . ." The leader should insist that all techniques read by each small group's chairman should be prefaced by "Had *we* taught this class, *we* would have. . . ."

The Importance of a Positive Approach

The success of the technique depends almost wholly upon the use of positive, forward looking attitude and procedure. The art and science of teaching is so complex and requires such a high level of skill that the teacher's security becomes highly vulnerable when his actions or results come under scrutiny. *First*, the invitation or voluntary part of the procedure is highly important. *Second* the good techniques observed make an excellent beginning for supportive value. It is highly improbable that a class to which others have been invited to observe will be wholly bad; there are always some good techniques used.

As we turn to the further technique ideas, the authors have found that by far the most positive attitude can be attained by insisting that the ideas be prefaced by "Had we (or I) taught the class, we (or I)" Suggestions without this preface tend to take on a criticizing flavor. The critical atmosphere should be avoided in every manner possible. Teachers need help, new ideas, and encouragement, not criticism.

A Typical Result

From the above procedure a long list of teaching techniques is accumulated. Groups using the technique for the first time are amazed to see the large number of ideas that are always produced. To illustrate a typical outcome the following partial result from a chemistry class visitation is presented below:

Good Teaching Techniques We Observed

1. The teacher wrote a synopsis of the lesson on the blackboard.
2. Began the lesson without "beating about the bush."
3. Related the lesson to the previous one.
4. Created and maintained vivid class participation.
5. Made a clear presentation of the subject.
6. Illustrated his explanations with experiments and practical demonstrations.
7. Made carefully prepared experiments; used those that don't "go wrong."
8. Documented the lesson well.
9. Talked to the class.
10. Talked in conversational voice, with good tone quality of voice.
11. Maintained a good, differentiated speed in his exposition.
12. Had good poise (the result of self-confidence).
13. Was dynamic and enthusiastic in his explanations.
14. Asked for individual student participation in the experiments.
15. Used his sense of humor on appropriate occasions.
16. His personal appearance was good, without mannerisms.
17. Made methodical use of the blackboard.
18. Wrote sufficiently large letters and figures.
19. Made appropriate and sufficient use of colored chalk.
20. Didn't cover the blackboard with his body when he pointed out what he had written.
21. Asked the class if they had any doubts at the end of the presentation of each topic.
22. Directed questions to the whole class.
23. Terminated the lesson on an opportune and interesting point.

If We Had Taught the Class We Would Have

1. Put direct questions to the whole class, only in order to attract the attention of everybody and, then, after a brief waiting period, indicate one student to give the answer.
2. Given everybody an opportunity to hear the explanation given in reply to one student's question which was related to the subject of the lesson and, therefore, of general interest.

3. Not only called the students' attention to the "Whats" of the subject they were going to study, but also to the "Whys," relating the subject to actual and everyday occurrences for clearer illustration.
4. Asked one of the students to give a summary (say, three minutes) of the subject matter covered in that lesson.
5. Assigned homework at an appropriate interest point.

PUTTING THE IDEAS TO WORK

Experimentation

The above procedure usually produces some twenty or thirty techniques of teaching. The question which immediately comes to many minds is "Are they all good techniques?" This is immediately followed by the question, "What are the best techniques in the list?" The authors have found that discussion of each technique in light of the values of goodness or badness nearly always ends in a fruitless argument. Each teacher most often bases his judgment on a personal opinion. At ITA we have had the best results by encouraging teachers to try the technique purely on a trial or an experimental basis. If it works (that is, if the students reach the desired objectives), it is a good technique. If it "works" better or is more effective than any other technique, then it becomes the best technique. After empirical experiences have been obtained, the teachers meet together to share the results they obtained from using the techniques. Even after this evaluation, as at the first trial point, individual teachers must use their good judgment in choosing which of the techniques he will use during each minute of a class period. It is believed that his trial use of a technique and the shared experiences of others with the same technique will sharpen his judgment.

The best evidence as to whether one technique is better than another can be obtained through controlled experimentation. If two sections of a course are taught, it would be a simple matter to use one technique (or set of techniques) in one section and another in the second. By comparing the results obtained, a better judgment can be made as to the quality of the techniques. One must be careful to equate the students of the two groups or to make proper allowances for the differences.

The Teacher's Guide

Another means of getting the new ideas into the classroom teaching is the development of a teacher's guide. This can be made in the form of a checklist. The techniques accumulated from several visitations are arranged across the top of the checklist and calendar dates along the left of the sheet. As teachers check the items which they used during a class period, they seem to be encouraged to use some of the other unused techniques in future teaching. It is easy to forget even some of the best techniques listed. The guide is merely a by-

product or follow-up; the best learnings come from the visitations, buzz sessions, and trial or experimental activities.

CONCOMITANT APPROACHES

In addition to the above procedure staff members will find much help in studying books and pamphlets and viewing films and filmstrips on the techniques of teaching. The following films published by McGraw-Hill Book Company are especially effective: *A Broader Concept of Method*; *Learning To Understand Children*; *Motivating the Class*; and *Discipline*. These films show the secondary-school teacher at work. University and college professors could also view with profit the films *Princeton* and *Antioch* published by the respective universities.

The buzz session used after each film showing, in the same manner as suggested above, is very instructional. Another fruitful approach would be to analyze in group meetings the possible effectiveness of teaching techniques as judged from a law of learning point of view. Such laws or principles can be obtained from any book on educational psychology.

CONCLUSION

The authors have described step by step a technique for teaching teachers how to teach better. The technique is realistic and brings excellent results. The procedure should be used continuously over the years. If each teacher on each faculty in schools, colleges, and universities could invite his colleagues for a visitation at least once each semester, the good teaching we now find in schools throughout the nation will be sure to be better.

DO YOU LIKE CARTOONS?

MANY high-school principals use cartoons on their bulletin boards to attract, amuse, and instruct the pupils in their school. Teachers have learned to collect appropriate cartoons for their classrooms because of the interest obtained from pupils.

Your teachers will find much to laugh about and many teaching values in the series of six cartoons described on another page of this Publication. They may be obtained from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., for \$2.00 for each complete set which is composed of 12 cartoons.

Antifraternity Rules

SECRET societies, usually with a Greek-letter name and generally referred to as fraternities or sororities depending on the sex of the members, have existed in American colleges from 1776, although there has been some opposition from educators and the public. In imitation of college fraternities, similar organizations began to appear at the high-school level about 1890. As the movement gained popularity with pupils, it gained disfavor among educators. The National Education Association reported in 1904¹ and again in 1905² that high-school secret societies were undesirable. Other organizations making similar investigations arrived at the same conclusion.³

In those early years, local school boards often attempted to restrict or prohibit high-school fraternities. Beginning with 1907, state legislation appeared to this end. Almost every conceivable rule and penalty was invoked by school administrators and legislators, but pupils continued to join and to insist upon their right to enjoy membership. Numerous cases have been brought to the courts for declaratory judgment on the status of fraternity members, to enjoin the enforcement of prohibitory rules, or to compel reinstatement after expulsion as a result of violation of the prohibitory rule. For the most part, the courts have sustained the right of school boards to ban fraternities and the right of legislators to prohibit them.

The earliest case arose in 1866. It is frequently cited as authority even today, although it is not actually in point since the school concerned was a privately endowed college and the rule a resolution of the trustees of the private institution.⁴ A student at Wheaton College joined the Good Templars, a temperance group. When he was suspended as a result, he brought *mandamus* for reinstatement. The court held that the rule against secret societies was within the power of the trustees of the college, since it was reasonable:

The tendency of secret societies is to withdraw students from the control of the faculty, and impair to some extent the discipline of the institution. . . . But whether the rule be judicious or not, it violates neither good morals nor the law of the land and is therefore clearly within the power of the college authorities to make and enforce.

¹ Morrison, Gilbert B. "Secret Fraternities in High Schools." *Proceeding*, 1904. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 1904. Pp. 484-90.

² Morrison, Gilbert B. "Report of the Committee on Secret Fraternities." *Proceedings*, 1905. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1905. Pp. 445-51.

³ Monroe, Paul, editor. *A Cyclopaedia of Education*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1918. Vol. 3, p. 276.

⁴ People of the State of Illinois *ex rel. Pratt v. Wheaton College*, 40 Ill. 186 (1866).

This article was prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association, Frank W. Hubbard, Director, and is printed by his permission.

This early case established the principle that a society which is secret may be prohibited, even though it is established for a commendable purpose.

In 1882 the issue arose in connection with a land-grant college in Indiana. Although not a part of the common-school system, the university was held to be analogous thereto so that the general principles of state education were applicable. The court considered the rule *ultra vires* and palpably unreasonable as far as it placed a disability upon persons already members of Greek fraternities and required a written pledge from them as a condition of admission.⁵

The admission of students in a public educational institution is one thing, and the government and control of students after they are admitted, and have become subject to the jurisdiction of the institution, is quite another thing.

This court was of the opinion that the university could prohibit any connection between the fraternities and the university; it could also prohibit attendance of students at fraternity meetings or their having any active connection with a fraternity while students. However:

If mere membership in any of the so-called Greek fraternities may be treated as a disqualification for admission as a student in the public school, then membership in any other secret or similar society may be converted into a like disqualification, and in this way discriminations might be made against large classes of the inhabitants of the State, in utter disregard of the fundamental ideas upon which our entire educational system is based.

A dissenting judge in this case believed that the distinction between expulsion and exclusion was a distinction without a difference. If there could be expulsion for disobeying the rule, there could be exclusion for refusing to promise compliance with the rule.

However, the United States Supreme Court upheld the right of a state to prohibit fraternities even in state universities. This leading case laid down the principle that no constitutional right of the students is denied by such a state law. It arose out of a state-wide law enacted by the Mississippi legislature prohibiting Greek-letter fraternities in any public educational institution in the state. The University of Mississippi ruled that the law would not be enforced against students already entered if they "conducted themselves with that decorum always expected of Southern Gentlemen." The case was brought by an otherwise qualified young man who was denied admission because he refused to sign a pledge of nonmembership. He was a member of a fraternity from an undergraduate school in a different institution. The Supreme Court of the United States approved the resolution of the university making the law applicable prospectively only, but it refused the contentions of the complainant that the statute violated the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution:

It is very trite to say that the right to pursue happiness and exercise rights of liberty are subject in some degree to the limitations of the law, and the conditions upon which the State of Mississippi offers the complainant free instruction in its University, that

⁵ *State ex rel. Stallard v. White*, 82 Ind. 278 (1882).

while a student there he renounce affiliation with a society which the State considers inimical to discipline, finds no prohibition in the Fourteenth Amendment.⁶

This pronouncement of the United States Supreme Court did not make the same distinction between exclusion and expulsion of members of secret societies as had been previously considered important by the majority of the Indiana court.

It was with this background that the problem of high-school fraternities faced the courts. The tender years of the pupils in the public schools was advanced as a further justification for prohibitory rules. Most high-school antifraternity cases have followed the *Waugh* decision of the Supreme Court regardless of distinguishing details, and all decisions have upheld rules banning high-school fraternities except one—a Missouri case which considered the prohibitory rule "unjust discrimination unsupported by right or reasons."⁷

Courts of a number of states have refused contentions that these rules are in excess of the board's authority; that they invade parental authority; that they constitute a cruel and unusual punishment; that they are arbitrary, unreasonable, and discriminatory; that they deprive members of their liberty, property, or happiness without due process of law; that they violate natural rights; that they constitute unwarranted paternalism; that they are a denial of the equal protection of the law and an impairment of vested rights; that, if carried to an extreme, they might interfere with religious liberty.

The statutes or school board rules so challenged make membership unlawful and refuse diplomas, credit for school work, or participation in extracurriculum activities as the penalty for violation. In most instances suspension or expulsion is authorized as penalty. Several statutes exempt societies which are sanctioned by the school board. These prohibitions were sustained by the courts in all cases except two—the aforementioned Missouri rule and a Texas rule which made the prohibition operative during the summer vacation. The Texas court held that this part of the prohibition was an unlawful invasion of parental authority.⁸

Since the basis upon which the ban on membership in secret societies has been wide and varied and since the prohibitory rules which have been challenged differ considerably, generalization is dangerous. Each decision considered only the rule and penalty of the particular case in which it was challenged, and the basis upon which it was challenged. A different rule or a different penalty might result in a different decision, or a different contention might bring a different decision on a particular rule or penalty. Some court opinions make this point clear; others are clothed in general language which disregards the finer distinctions.

⁶ *Waugh v. University of Mississippi*, 237 U. S. 589 (1915). The fourteenth amendment of the United States Constitution, section 1, reads in part: "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privilege or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

⁷ *Wright v. Board of Education of St. Louis*, 246 S. W. 43 (Mo. 1922).

⁸ *Wilson v. Abilene Independent School District*, 190 S. W. (2d) 406 (Texas 1945).

On pages below are given the current prohibitory state laws and the court decisions in which that or a previous prohibitory rule or law has been sustained. In some states the laws have not been challenged. In other states a local school board rule, rather than a state law, has been before the court.

In a number of states there has been no legislation prohibiting secret societies and no litigation on the subject. Whether local prohibitory rules exist or not is unknown. The authority of local school boards in the general control of the schools and in their authority to suspend, expel, or otherwise discipline pupils who disobey the school board's regulation would probably be invoked to sustain the right of a local school board to promulgate an antifraternity rule if such were ever challenged.

In this connection, two states deserve special mention—Massachusetts and New York. Massachusetts has no antifraternity law but local school boards have statutory authority to supervise and control "all athletic and other organizations composed of public school pupils and bearing the school name or organized in connection therewith."⁹ This section has been interpreted by the court as including the power to ban fraternities.¹⁰ Other states that have not enacted an antifraternity law probably have given similar authority to local school boards, although in no other state has the application of such a general power been applied in an antifraternity controversy. New York law gives control over organizations of pupils which meet in the public schools. The commissioner of education has interpreted this statute as being enabling legislation that would permit local school boards to prohibit use of the schools for fraternity meetings, but he has held that the board has no jurisdiction over the private affairs of students who do not hold themselves out as representing the schools or who do not meet on public school property. No cases have arisen in New York.

Twenty-nine states are listed in the following summary of laws and court decisions. Neither a state law nor a court decision has come to light in the other nineteen states.¹¹ Twenty-five states have antifraternity statutes; Maryland, a state board regulation. Although fourteen cases are summarized by states on the following pages, most of the cases are concerned with local school board rules. Dates of the original enactments are shown in parentheses after the summary of each statute. Dates of court decisions are shown in parentheses after the citation of each case. It will be seen that in a number of instances the date of a case is earlier than the date of the enactment. The statutory summaries contain current provisions, including amendments, if any, of the original enactments. In seven states the court has dealt with this problem in the absence of an antifraternity law, and in three of these seven states no such law has ever been

⁹ *Annotated Laws of Massachusetts*, Chapter 71, sec. 47.

¹⁰ *Antell, v. Stokes*, 191 N. E. 407 (1934); summarized on page 90.

¹¹ Alabama, Arizona, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Kentucky, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

enacted (in the other four, statutes were enacted subsequent to the court decision).

STATE-BY-STATE SUMMARY

Arkansas

State Law: Arkansas Statutes, 1947. Title 80, Chapter 20.

School authorities are directed to suspend or expel pupils who are members, who promise to join, who wear any insignia, or who solicit members. Newspapers and periodicals are forbidden to refer to high-school fraternities. Persons or firms violating the act are subject to a fine of \$25 to \$100 for each offense.

Fraternities in institutions of junior-college and higher level are exempted, as are also senior high-school students of national fraternities or sororities. (Enacted in 1929.)

Court Case: Isgrig v. Srygley, 197 S. W. (2d) 39 (1946).

Members of fraternities challenged the authority of the school board of Little Rock to enforce a 1945 resolution denying certain extracurricular activities and honors to members of secret societies. The state law exempts national fraternities, but the court said this exemption does not by implication authorize their existence; that the school board drew its authority from a statutory mandate to do all things necessary and lawful for the conduct of an efficient free public school and from the constitutional requirement that the state maintain an efficient school system.

The court referred with approval to the Texas case (*Wilson v. Abilene Independent School District*, 190 S. W. (2d) 406) and said that the Texas judge "effectively conveyed the thought that a system could not be efficient if essential rules were being violated, if time apportionable to study was being utilized for social purposes, and if disinclination of a particular group to associate with others occasioned discord and brought on dissatisfaction." The antifraternity rule was upheld.

California

State Law: Section 16075 of the Education Code enacted in 1943.

It is unlawful for any elementary- or high-school pupil to join or be a member of any secret society except the Native Sons of the Golden West, the Native Daughters of the Golden West, the Foresters of America, "or other kindred organizations not directly associated with the public schools." School boards are empowered to make rules and regulations for the enforcement of the anti-fraternity law and may suspend, "or, if necessary," expel a pupil who refuses or neglects to obey the rules and regulations. (Originally enacted in 1929.)

Court Case: Bradford v. Board of Education of San Francisco, 121 Pac. 929 (1912).

The previous and similar law was challenged as class legislation because normal schools were not affected and because certain organizations were excepted. The court held there was no class discrimination because all members of the class were equally affected, and the classifications were reasonable. Elementary- and high-school pupils are immature and more likely to be affected by any possible hurtful influences. Certain organizations, such as Native Sons of the Golden West, which were excepted could not possibly be expected to diminish the efficiency of the educational system of the state. The prohibitory rule does not violate the fourteenth amendment because attendance at public schools is not a privilege which goes with United States citizenship. In this connection the court quoted from Volume 6, *American and English Encyclopedia of Law* (page 77) as follows: "The privilege of receiving an education at the expense of the state is not one belonging to those upon whom it is conferred as citizens of the United States, and, therefore, so far as the privileges and immunities' clause of the fourteenth amendment is concerned, might be granted or refused to any individual or class at the pleasure of the state."

Colorado

State Law: Colorado Statutes Annotated 1935. Chapter 146, secs. 306-309. (1949 Replacement Volume 4B.)

It is unlawful to join, to become a member of, to belong to, or to take part in such organizations or their formation, except those sanctioned by the school board; it is unlawful to solicit membership; penalty is commitment as a delinquent. Penalty for pupils is suspension, after investigation, expulsion, or denial of graduation honors or participation in school organizations or honors; they may be treated as delinquents. Solicitor, not a pupil, may be proceeded against under the law concerning persons who contribute to children's delinquency. School boards may make rules and regulations for enforcement. (Enacted in 1913.)

Court Cases: None

Florida

State Law: Florida Statutes Annotated. Secs. 242.46-242.49.

It is unlawful to establish such society or to go on school premises to solicit members; it is unlawful to be a member, or to join, or pledge, except DeMolay, Order of Rainbow for girls, and other organizations approved or favored by the school or an organization based on scholarship or achievement which is not in the nature of a secret society. Penalty is suspension or, if necessary, expulsion. Institutions of higher learning and private schools are excepted. County boards are to make rules and regulations. (Originally enacted in 1943.)

Court Case: Satan Fraternity v. Board of Public Instruction for Dade County, 22 So. (2d) 892 (1945).

This case was for declaratory judgment as to plaintiff's status. Members of the fraternity claimed that the prohibitory rule "deprived them of their inalienable right to life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, due process of law, liberty of speech, the right of assembly, and for redress of grievance as guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Florida." The court upheld the validity of the law on the theory that attendance at "an educational institution provided by the State is not a natural right but a public benefaction and those who seek to become beneficiaries of them must submit to such regulations and conditions as the law imposes as a prerequisite to participate." The court found nothing in the law that interfered with the pupils' constitutional liberties, concluding that "it is pertinent to state that none of our liberties are absolute; all of them may be limited when the common good or common decency requires . . . Freedom after all is not something turned footloose to run as it will like a thoroughbred in a blue grass meadow."

As to the reasonableness of the rule and its relation to parental authority, the court had this to say: "It is quite true as contended by appellants that purely social activities should not be tinkered with by law but whether high-school fraternities and sororities are purely social is a question of fact which the legislature has answered in the negative and we find no reason to disturb their finding. We cannot see that the question of state *vs.* parental control enters into the picture in any manner. The public school system has a very definite place in our scheme of things and the question in every case is whether or not the high-school fraternity or sorority disrupts or materially interferes with that purpose. The cases here cited show conclusively that there has long been a feeling in this country that this question requires an affirmative answer, and the legislature has concluded the matter in this State."

Idaho

State Law: Idaho Code. Title 33, secs. 2729-2732.

Secret societies are prohibited except Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Hi-Y Club, DeMolay, Beehive Girls, and similar organizations which are institutionally sponsored and approved. Penalty is withdrawal of rights and privileges in school, suspension or expulsion, denial of school credit or graduation. It is unlawful for any elementary- or high-school pupil to be a member, to join, or to pledge membership. (Enacted in 1947.)

Court Cases: None

Illinois

State Law: Illinois Revised Statutes Annotated. Chapter 122, Art. 31. (New School Code of 1945.)

Secret fraternities are prohibited. Penalty is suspension or expulsion of members, or pledges, or solicitors of members. If the offender is not a pupil, penalty is a fine of \$25 to \$100 for each offense. Institutions of higher learning are exempted. (Originally enacted in 1919.)

Court Cases: (a) *Wilson v. Board of Education of Chicago*, 84 N. E. 697 (1908).

Local board rule denied the fraternities the privilege of meeting in school buildings, denied them public recognition, and forbade them to use the school name. Members were not permitted to represent the school in literary or athletic contests or in any other public capacity. Parents were to be notified that the school condemns all such secret societies. This case was brought to enjoin the enforcement of the rule. It was alleged that the rule violates the pupils' natural rights, is an unlawful discrimination, and an arbitrary exercise of power on the part of the board. The court held that the rule was within the power of the board and the pupils were not denied any rights. They have a choice and if they choose fraternity membership they can still attend school and participate in extracurriculum activities. This case was followed in *Favorite v. Board of Education of Chicago*, 85 N. E. 402 (1908) with a *per curiam* decision.

(b) *Sutton v. Board of Education of Springfield*, 138, N. E. 131 (1923).

Years later another case came up under the statute. The court quoted with approval the *Wilson*, *Bradford*, and *Waugh* cases and concluded: "The statute does not purport to control pupils in their homes or in social activities under the supervision of their parents, but declares that the secret societies and organizations defined therein are inimical to the public good and for that reason they are forbidden. The legislature considered such societies detrimental to the good order and best interests of the school, and we cannot say the statute is not a reasonable enactment and a valid exercise of legislative powers for the promotion of the best interests of the schools and the discipline and good order therein."

Indiana

State Law: *Burns' Indiana Statutes Annotated*. Title 28, sec. 5106. (1948 Replacement Volume 6.)

Fraternities are forbidden. Local school authorities are required to enforce the law by suspending or, if necessary, expelling violators of local rules and regulations made to implement the general prohibitory statute. (Enacted in 1907.)

Court Cases: No high-school cases, but see *State ex rel. Stallard v. White*, 82 Ind. 278 (1882), discussed in text on page 81.

Iowa

State Law: Iowa Code Annotated. Chapter 287.

It is unlawful to join, be a member, or solicit members except in those organizations sanctioned by the school board. Penalty is suspension or expulsion, or denial of graduation, or participation in school honors. Investigation is prerequisite. School boards are to make rules and regulations. Rushing is prohibited and nonschool persons who violate the statute are subject to a fine of \$2 to \$10 which if not paid may result in imprisonment for a maximum of ten days. (Enacted in 1909.)

Court Case: Lee v. Hoffman, 166 N. W. 565 (1918).

Mandamus to compel reinstatement after expulsion for violation of the rule, which was challenged as unregulated delegation of authority by the legislature to school boards, as class legislation, as denial of equal protection of the laws by making an arbitrary differentiation, as unwarranted paternalistic regulation, as denial of due process since no hearing before expulsion was provided; it was also challenged on the ground that it might interfere with religious affiliations and be a denial of religious liberty. The court held that the legislature had the right to delegate this authority to local boards and, since limitations were placed in the law, the delegation could not be called unbridled. It was not class legislation because it deals equally with all the class affected. The differentiation is not arbitrary since no abuse of discretion had been shown. It is paternalistic, but much legislation is, and laws of this kind are invalid only when the paternalism is unwarranted. This law is not unduly paternalistic because its purpose is "to raise the school privilege to its highest possible efficiency."

"It is directed against what is matter of common knowledge—that activity in matters other than the school work will divide the interest of the pupil and subtract from the energy that should be devoted to the school curriculum, and that affiliation with a society, no matter how innocuous in itself, still has a tendency to breed hatreds and jealousies because the society may exclude some while receiving others, that the tendency of such affiliations is to breed division and class hatreds."

Since parents were notified and a reasonable time given for renouncing membership, there was sufficient due process without a hearing before expulsion. As to the contention that the rule might interfere with religious liberty, if carried to religious organizations, the court conceded that such a result might follow, but it need not be considered until the issue arises in fact. A court will decide only the issue before it.

Kansas

State Law: General Statutes of Kansas, 1949. Chapter 72, sec. 5311.

Participation or membership is unlawful in "any secret fraternity or secret organization whatsoever that is in any degree a school organization." (Enacted in 1907.)

Court Cases: None

Louisiana

State Law: Louisiana Revised Statutes of 1950. Secs. 2091-2093.

Authorizes local boards by majority vote to prohibit secret societies and if so voted it is the duty of the principal to suspend or expel members and pupils who pledge or solicit members. The suspension or expulsion is reviewable by the state board of education. Any person who encourages or solicits members for the banned organization may be fined \$25 to \$250 for each offense. (Enacted in 1944.)

Court Cases: Hughes v. Caddo Parish School Board, 57 F. Suppl. 508, (1944); affirmed by the U. S. Supreme Court (per curiam) 65 S. Ct. 562 (1945).

The parish school board adopted a resolution requiring principals to suspend or expel pupils who remained members of high-school fraternities or sororities. The pupils who here challenged the rule were above compulsory school age, and the court, therefore, followed the *Waugh* decision of the United States Supreme Court when in 1915 it sustained the antifraternity rule applied in the University of Mississippi.

Maine

State Law: Revised Statutes of Maine, 1944. Volume 1, Chapter 37, sec. 51.

Participation and membership in high-school fraternities is prohibited. Penalty is expulsion or other disciplinary measure. (Enacted in 1913.)

Court Cases: None

Maryland

State Law: By-law No. 60 of the State Board of Education.

Membership in fraternities is forbidden, and county boards of education are authorized to exclude a pupil found to be a member from "representing the school in any public activity, contest, or exhibition, such as athletic, literary, or dramatic, and from participating in any school activity other than class attendance, and from holding a position of authority in any school or class organization." Further, the county board may exclude from class any pupil whose behavior is detrimental to school discipline.

Court Cases: None

Massachusetts

State Law: No antifraternity law, but see discussion on page 83.

Court Case: *Antell v. Stokes*, 191 N. E. 407 (1934).

Mandamus to compel reinstatement of pupils expelled because of membership in a fraternity. The local rule prohibited membership, rushing, or wearing of distinctive insignia of unapproved fraternities. The penalty was expulsion. In upholding the board's power to make and enforce the rule, the court said: "This is not an invasion of the domain reserved exclusively to home and family. Formal associations of pupils in connection with a public school possesses possibilities of genuine harm to the reputation of the school and to the studious habits and personal character of the members. These factors intimately concern the general welfare in connection with the public school. They properly may be regulated by rules adopted pursuant to legislative sanction."

Michigan

State Law: *Michigan Statutes Annotated*. Secs. 15.741-15.744.

It is unlawful to organize, join, or belong to secret societies. Penalty is suspension or expulsion of members, pledges, or solicitors. It is illegal to give credit for study, or to promote or to graduate violators. Credit given contrary to this provision shall not be accepted by any other educational institution in the state. School authorities violating or knowingly permitting or consenting to violation are to be fined \$25 to \$100. (Enacted in 1911.)

Court Cases: *Steele v. Sexton*, 234 N. W. 436 (1931).

This was a 4-3 decision upholding the Michigan law. A senior high-school pupil was denied his diploma and credit for work taken after he admitted membership in a high-school fraternity. He alleged that the rule was cruel and unusual punishment, deprived him of liberty and property without due process of law, and denied him the equal protection of the law. The court said it was not cruel or unusual punishment because credits "involve deportment, subordination to discipline, and obedience to rules and regulations established by the legislature for the protection of the best interests of the public schools and good order therein." As to allegations under the fourteenth amendment, the court followed the *Waugh* case decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1915. Without discussion of the point, the majority held that there was no merit in the contention that the statute is class legislation, discriminating against public-school pupils and in favor of private-school pupils.

Dissent: The three judges who dissented from the majority opinion believed that the high-school diploma was property, since it is evidence of preparation for college, and that the pupil had been unjustly deprived of it. The dissent

also was of the opinion that the legislation goes beyond the sphere of state regulation. "If the legislature may proscribe one social activity or one kind of social organization, it may in its discretion, proscribe any other . . . The board of education ought not to be constituted social snoopers. Public education has its legitimate sphere, but the child, except when in school or on his way to or from there, is not under control of school authorities."

Minnesota

State Law: Minnesota Statutes Annotated. Sec. 131.25.

It is unlawful to join, be a member, or solicit members. Includes junior colleges and vocational schools. Local school boards may make rules for enforcement. May suspend or dismiss, deny participation in school honors or graduation. Nonschool persons soliciting membership on school premises are guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to a fine of \$2 to \$10, which if not paid may result in imprisonment for a maximum of ten days. (Enacted in 1907.)

Court Cases: None

Mississippi

State Law: Mississippi Code, 1942. Volume 5, Title 24, secs. 6792-6797.

Regulates college fraternities which are permitted by consent of faculty. High-school and junior-college fraternities are prohibited, except literary, religious, athletic societies, class organizations, or departmental groups. Penalty may be suspension, expulsion, and/or a fine of \$25 to \$100. (Originally enacted in 1926.)

*Court Cases: No high-school cases, but see *Waugh v. Mississippi University*, 237 U. S. 589 (1915), discussed in text on page 82.*

Missouri

State Law: No antifraternity law.

*Court Cases: *Wright v. Board of Education of St. Louis*, 246 S. W. 43 (1922).*

To enjoin the enforcement of a school board rule forbidding high-school pupils to form or join secret organizations, or to continue to be members. The penalty was denial of eligibility to membership in school-sponsored organizations, and members were not permitted to represent the school in any capacity or to participate in graduation exercises. The court held the rule to be invalid since, broadly interpreted, it would prohibit pupils from participating in activities outside school hours and at their homes, unless with the approval of the school board. But the authority of the board ceases when the pupil reaches his home, unless his act affects the conduct and discipline of the school. The court felt that membership in fraternities had not been proved to be detrimental to the operation and control of the school.

Dissent: A dissenting judge was satisfied that ample proof had been shown that fraternities were demoralizing: members were lower in scholarship and constituted greater disciplinary problems; nonmembers became discouraged and even left school. The penalty did not deny any pupil a substantial right guaranteed by the Constitution. The dissenting opinion continued to say that the rule was not unreasonable or oppressive but was made for the best interests of the school and the great body of pupils and should, therefore, be sustained.

Montana

State Law: Revised Codes of Montana, 1947. Sec. 75-2802.

Participation, membership, and solicitation are prohibited. Exempts organizations sanctioned by the local school board. Local boards are to make rules and regulations. May suspend, expel, deny honors of graduation, or participation in school activities, by two-thirds vote of board after investigation. Nonschool person soliciting members on or about school premises is guilty of a misdemeanor. For violation of any provision, a fine of \$5 to \$25 for each offense. (Enacted in 1913.)

Court Cases: None

Nebraska

State Law: Revised Statutes of Nebraska, 1943. Chapter 79, secs. 4,125-4,127.

Participation or membership is unlawful. Pupil or nonschool person forbidden to solicit members on school premises. Penalty, a fine of \$2 to \$10. Board may deny privileges or expel. (Enacted in 1909.)

Court Cases: None

New Jersey

State Law: New Jersey Statutes Annotated. Title 18, secs. 18:14-110-18:14-111.

Forbids the formation and maintenance of fraternities and authorizes the school board to make rules and regulations for disciplinary measures in its enforcement. Normal schools are excepted. (Enacted in 1922.)

Court Cases: None

North Carolina

State Law: No antifraternity law.

Court Cases: Coggins v. Board of Education of Durham, 28 S. E. (2d) 527 (1944).

The school board rule denied members of secret fraternities the privilege of participation in extracurriculum activities. Each pupil was required to sign a pledge that he was not a member nor would become a member, nor contribute

funds or participate in the activities of any secret society. The board notified parents that failure of a pupil to sign the pledge or violation of the pledge would result in exclusion from extracurriculum activities. The pupils brought this action to restrain the enforcement of the rule. In upholding the validity of the school board action, the court reviewed the powers of school boards and held that this rule was within the board's authority to regulate the conduct of pupils. Members of the banned societies were not denied instruction nor participation in any of the required work of the school. They were simply given the option of membership in fraternities or participation in extracurriculum activities.

Ohio

State Law: Penal Code of Ohio. Sec. 12906.

A fine of \$10 to \$25 is set for any person who organizes, joins, or belongs to a high-school fraternity. (Originally enacted in 1908.)

Court Cases: None

Oklahoma

State Law: Oklahoma Statutes 1951. Title 70, sec. 20-2.

Secret societies are prohibited, exempting Boy Scouts, Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, Y-Teens, DeMolay, Rainbow Girls, scholarship societies, 4-H Clubs, and kindred organizations. School boards are authorized to promulgate rules and regulations for enforcement, including suspension or expulsion of pupils who are members, who join or pledge or solicit membership. Nonschool persons soliciting membership shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be fined \$25 to \$200 for each offense. (Originally enacted in 1913.)

Court Cases: None

Oregon

State Law: Oregon Compiled Laws Annotated. Title 111, secs. 3004-3006.

Fraternities are pronounced unlawful except in the state agricultural college and state university. It is made the duty of school boards to suppress such societies and to suspend or expel pupils who violate the law. (Enacted in 1909.)

Court Cases: Burkitt v. School District No. 1, Multnomah County, 246 P. (2d) 566 (1952).

Portland had disregarded the 1909 law until 1936 when a pledge system was started. Parents protested and the system was not working well, so in 1943-44 it was abandoned. The board then ignored fraternities as long as they did not operate in the schools. In 1949 the board passed new regulations setting forth the conditions under which clubs could exist. One of the conditions was that

membership be restricted to a school, that there be no graduate members or interschool membership. This rule in particular was challenged in this case. The suit was brought by parents having children in several schools. They also alleged that the banned organizations were not actually secret societies.

The court upheld the board's regulations; with regard to the allegation that the organizations were not secret societies the court said, "The statute does not comprehend nonsecret societies, . . . [but] there need not be any high degree of 'ritual or mystery' in their conduct to bring a particular society within the category of 'secret.' "

Pennsylvania

State Law: Purdon's Pennsylvania Statutes Annotated. Title 24, sec. 5-511.

School boards are required to prescribe rules controlling school organizations and may suspend or expel or otherwise penalize any pupil who violates such rules. (Originally enacted in 1911.)

Court Cases: None

Rhode Island

State Law: General Laws of Rhode Island of 1938. (Annotated) Chapter 198, sec. 10.

School organizations are forbidden except class or school clubs under the teachers' direction and open to all pupils. (Enacted in 1922.)

Court Cases: None

Texas

State Law: Vernon's Texas Penal Code 1952. Sec. 301d.

Public school fraternities are declared unlawful below college level. Members, pledges, and solicitors are to be suspended or expelled. Any violator may be fined \$25 to \$100 for each offense. Organizations excepted are Boy Scouts, Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, DeMolay, Rainbow Girls, Pan American Clubs, scholarship societies, and "other kindred educational organizations sponsored by the state or national educational authorities." (Originally enacted in 1937.)

Court Cases: Wilson v. Abilene Independent School District, 190 S. W. (2d) 406 (1945).

To enjoin the school board from enforcing its order requiring all junior and senior high-school pupils to sign a pledge card, attested by their parents or guardians, as a prerequisite for participation in extracurricular and interschool activities and eligibility for graduation with honor and for medals and scholarships. The pledge was that the pupil was not a member of any secret society,

fraternity, or sorority and that he would not join nor attend any functions even as a guest. The pledge was to extend until graduation and be effective during vacations as well as during school sessions. Parents and pupils challenged the requirements as arbitrary, unreasonable, and discriminatory, as an impairment of vested rights in the obligation of contracts, as an invasion of parental authority, and as an unauthorized act on the part of the school board. The court held that the requirement was reasonable and within the power of the school board except as to the vacation period which was an invasion of parental authority.

Vermont

State Law: Vermont Statutes. Sec. 4328. (Revision of 1947)

It is unlawful to join or solicit members in any societies, except those sanctioned by the commissioner of education and school superintendents after impartial investigation of each organization. The board is empowered to suspend or expel violators or deny participation in school honors or graduation. The law is not to apply to temperance or religious organizations nor those established "for the moral advancement of youth." (Enacted in 1908.)

Court Cases: None

Washington

State Law: Revised Code of Washington. Title 28, sec. 62.180(13).

Powers of boards of directors of school districts of the first class include the prohibition of all secret fraternities and sororities among the pupils in any of the schools of the said districts. (Enacted in 1909.)

Title 43, sec. 63.140(5), lists the powers and duties of the state board of education, which include to examine and accredit secondary schools: "Provided, That no public high school or private academy shall be placed upon the accredited list so long as secret societies are allowed to exist among its students." (Enacted in 1909 as to private academies; extended to public schools in 1933.)

Court Case: Wayland v. Board of School Directors of Seattle, 86 Pac. 642 (1906).

This was one of the early cases to enjoin the enforcement of a school-board rule prohibiting fraternities in high schools. The rules and regulations denied participation in extracurricular activities as penalty. It was challenged as an excess of authority on the part of the board, but the court held it to be within the board's authority, and concluded that no right was denied since pupils were permitted to attend classes and retain membership. The "evidence shows beyond a doubt that these secret organizations when effected foster a clannish spirit of insubordination, which results in much evil to the good order, harmony, discipline, and general welfare of the school."

A Plea for Good Handwriting in Our High Schools

A. RUSSELL MACK

IT IS generally conceded that the best handwriting is done in the elementary school, that the handwriting of high-school pupils is poor, and that college students are very poor writers. The scrawls which are the signatures of too many adults are just short of being undecipherable. It is perfectly understandable why the busy executive has his secretary type his name just below where he is to place his signature. I am taking no "holier than thou" attitude for there are times when I am ashamed of my own writing. I, too, am a product of training and experience.

The truth of the matter, as I see it, is that each of us has several brands of handwriting. There is our best which reflects whatever instruction we have had in the art, and there are our other varieties depending upon our haste in registering our racing thoughts and the conditions of writing at the moment.

The big question is—what should be done about it? I have probably visited more schools, both elementary and secondary, than anyone else in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and I have observed classes in penmanship many times. Since retirement with its opportunity for retrospection, I have attempted to crystallize my thinking with reference to many procedures in education. Here, I propose to discuss just one—good handwriting. I have two convictions concerning it. Incidentally, it should always be kept in mind that there is no royal road to good penmanship any more than there is to anything worth while. There must be conscientious, intelligent application and drill together with proper instruction and a desire for improvement. My two convictions are (1) that there must be a definite system of handwriting taught in the schools—it cannot be left to the chance that any teacher is able to teach it—and (2) that instruction in good handwriting should be extended throughout the high-school years.

In discussing this second point, the present general practice in Massachusetts is to have penmanship in the elementary schools. There are very few high schools where the subject is offered. Actually, as of 1952-53, there were twenty-seven, of the two hundred and fifty-five high schools in Massachusetts, which offered penmanship. These courses were for commercial pupils for the

A. Russell Mack, Senior Supervisor of Secondary Education in the Massachusetts State Department of Education for seventeen years, retired last fall.

most part, although good work is done for all pupils in the high schools of Franklin, Gardner, Great Barrington, Greenfield, Lunenburg, Newburyport, Southboro, and Tewksbury. We teach English in all twelve grades; that is, we do not argue, as is apparently true in penmanship, that all formal instruction in the subject should cease upon entering high school. Also let no one state that the typewriter is eliminating the need for good penmanship. Just observe that, in the commercial colleges, penmanship continues to be taught. With the teaching of penmanship in the high school, there would be the opportunity for a greater fixation of the habit of writing with a legible, uniform, and pleasing hand. There need be no illusions; that is, all will not become perfect penmen any more than all are perfect in the use of English. Those who delight in commenting upon how atrocious is the handwriting of our high-school graduates—even if in glass houses themselves—might well be better pleased with the product of the high school if the pupils were given training in handwriting.

There are natural questions—who will do the teaching, where in the curriculum will it be taught, where can time be found for it, *etc.*? Since we are considering all high-school pupils and not the members of the commercial curriculum, the college preparatory curriculum, or any other, I would suggest penmanship as a home-room activity. This would involve many teachers, and doubtless their penmanship could also be improved. Half an hour of penmanship once or twice a week under the general supervision of some recognized handwriting system would work wonders. Just as the use of good English should be insisted upon by all teachers and not only the English teachers, similarly, all teachers should use and promote good handwriting.

The curriculum in secondary education should be in a continuing state of revision. Penmanship is only one of many needs which should be recognized. In the general over-all strengthening of our curriculum, let's have penmanship included.

NASSP CONTRIBUTES \$1606 TO NEW NEA CENTER

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals, by action of its Executive Committee, contributed \$1,000 to the NEA building fund. Members of the Washington office staff contributed an additional \$606 to the new building program. In addition, the four men on the profession staff hold NEA Life Membership, fees from which are allocated to the NEA building fund. The NASSP urges all its members to consider a life membership in the NEA, and thereby assure themselves that they will have a share in the great NEA center that is now under construction.

Pupil Participation in the Organization and Control of Co-Curricular Activities—Fact or Fancy?

JAMES H. MOYER

ONE of the significant controversial issues in the field of co-curricular activities is centered on the degree to which pupils should participate in the organization and control of these activities. Some argue that pupils should have little or no control on the grounds that pupils are too immature to be given such a responsibility. Others maintain that much of the responsibility for the organization and management of these activities should be delegated to pupils because, after all, the activities program is for the pupils plus the conviction that pupil participation is a valuable learning experience. As is true with many issues, there are many who tend to take a middle ground. The primary purpose of this article is to present some evidence as to the nature and extent of pupil participation in the organization and control of their activities currently in practice in selected public schools throughout the United States. It is hoped that such evidence may be of some assistance to administrators and teachers who face the issue indicated above.

Co-curricular activities, still commonly referred to as extracurricular activities, are gradually finding their true place among the learning experiences provided by our schools. The change in name is an indication that more people are accepting the learning experiences provided through these activities as significant in the lives of our pupils. Such activities are increasingly being accepted by our schools as essential rather than "extra."

Since it is generally agreed that co-curricular activities should be pupil-centered, the question naturally arises as to what part pupils should play in these activities. For example, should pupils be permitted to choose the activities they desire? Should pupils be given an opportunity to participate in the organization and control of these activities? And should pupils be given some say in the determination of the programs of these their activities? Putting it another way, should pupils be allowed to assume some responsibility for the organization and direction of these activities? If so, what should be the extent and nature of such participation?

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A committee of three members¹ of the faculty of the School of Education of The Pennsylvania State College has been exploring current practices in the co-curricular field from grades one through fourteen. This is a study, nation-wide in scope, of "best practices" in this field as reported on printed questionnaires mailed to school administrators, teacher sponsors, and others. It is the intention of this committee to share the results of this research as soon as the data can be summarized and prepared for publication.

This co-operative study throws some light on the nature and extent of pupil participation in the organization and control of their co-curricular activities. The reader should keep in mind that the information which follows comes from schools which are reported as exemplifying "best practices" with reference to pupil participation in this area. To obtain information on this phase of the study, the following question was asked: "Do your pupils actively participate in the organization and control of their extraclass program? Yes. No. If you checked Yes, please indicate the nature of such participation." Thus far responses to this question have been received from 136 schools located in forty-two states.

Of the 136 schools reporting, 129 said that pupils were given some responsibility in the organization and control of their extraclass activities, and only eleven schools reported that they gave their pupils no opportunity to participate. A study of the table which follows will reveal something of the nature of pupil participation currently in operation in the 129 schools where such participation is reported to exist.

Ways by Which Pupils Participate in the Organization and Control of Their Co-Curricular Activities as Reported by 129 schools in 42 States

<i>Nature of Participation</i>	<i>Frequency of Mention</i>
<i>General assistance with:</i> choosing activities, planning programs, and supervising and administering certain phases of the program	50
<i>Committees with broad functions:</i> steering, control and executive committees, inter-club council and "cabinet of eleven"	25
<i>Student council:</i> council issues charters, plans, recommends, and supervises activities often with some faculty assistance or direction	24
<i>Officers:</i> officers elected by pupils	22
<i>Assist faculty:</i> pupils volunteer to assist, pupil assistance is requested by faculty	15
<i>Complete student control</i>	7
<i>Approve charters</i>	3
<i>Work through principal's office</i>	1
<i>General participation:</i> assist with the general nature of the program (2), limited participation (2), planning conference (1), discussions (1), pupil volunteers (1), faculty directs (1), "pupils carry on where hard and fast rules exist" (1)	9
<i>Specific participation:</i> give awards (1), fund-raising activities (1), orchestra and song leaders (1)	3

¹ This Committee is composed of Franklin A. Miller, chairman; James H. Moyer; and Robert B. Patrick.

A cursory glance at this table will reveal some overlapping among the several categories listed. Even so, it does give the reader a general picture of the amount and nature of pupil participation in the organization and control of extraclass activities in the schools studied. Attention should also be called to the fact that some schools reported more than one type of pupil participation.

It is interesting to note that seven schools are reported to have assigned complete control of the extraclass activities to pupils. What is meant by complete control cannot be determined from the questionnaire responses. In a few schools, pupil participation in control is very limited. Practices in most of the schools seem to lie somewhere in between.

The means through which pupils express their ideas and desires vary widely from school to school, which is to be expected. Most of the participation seems to be of a general nature. Much of the participation appears to be fragmentary in nature without any clear-cut, broad school policy. Another interesting fact is that at least twenty-five schools report that they have activities committees through which pupils may express themselves. The fact that, in twenty-four schools, pupils may express themselves through their student councils is worthy of note especially if these councils truly represent the pupils. Twenty-two schools provide opportunities for pupil participation through officers, not necessarily council officers, elected by the pupils. In fifth place, in order of frequency of mention, pupils are invited to serve as faculty assistants which might imply that the faculty sometimes seek pupil aid, but they (faculty) assume responsibility for taking the initiative and for such action as is taken. Other forms of pupil participation taper off quickly in frequency of mention. These less used forms of participation are included in the table to give a complete picture of the wide variety of types of pupil participation currently in use.

To summarize, the fact that 129 schools out of a total of 136 reporting schools have some form of pupil participation in the organization and control of their extraclass activities would lend credence to the assumption that these schools believe pupil participation is important. It would be very interesting to learn what success the seven schools are having with complete student control over their extraclass programs. As was to be expected, the extent and nature of pupil participation in the organization and control of their extraclass programs varied widely. It will be obvious to the reader that the data here presented are very general and are far from complete, but they do give some indication of present practice in some of our better schools.

Finally, what are some of the conclusions that we as administrators and teachers may draw from the data presented and what are some of the basic implications involved? As has been pointed out previously, the principle of

pupil participation in the organization and control of their co-curricular activities is widely accepted in our schools, but the varying kinds and degrees of such participation raise some thought-provoking questions. Why is there such a wide variation in the amount and kind of pupil participation? Is it ever wise to permit pupils to exercise complete control? If so, under what conditions? What is the optimum amount of pupil control for your school? What are some of the factors that have a direct bearing on the determination of the nature and extent of pupil control? Whatever our responses to these and other related questions may be, we should keep in mind these two basic concepts: (1) co-curricular activities consist of learning experiences in as true a sense as do those provided through classroom instruction, and (2) more effective learning results from guided pupil participation in the learning process to the end that each pupil will become progressively competent to think and act for himself. Let's make intelligent pupil participation in the organization and control of his co-curricular activities *fact*—not fancy.

NEA Safety Commission Produces Film on Fire Safety Education

A NEW educational film illustrating how schools teach the fundamentals of fire prevention has been released by the National Commission on Safety Education of the National Education Association. The film is entitled, *Fire in Their Learning*. "The primary purpose of the film is teacher education. But the approaches and methods in fire safety used to illustrate the ways in which teachers teach all subjects will be of interest to parents and others," said M. R. Trabue, Commission chairman in announcing the production and release of the film by the NEA Safety Commission.

The story of the film is an actual account of the study of fire made by a fourth-grade class. As the film opens, a fire is discovered in a woods adjoining the school playground. The children help in reporting the fire and watch the firemen extinguish the flames. They return to their classroom filled with questions about the fire. From then on, the film shows how Miss Patterson, the fourth-grade teacher, helps the members of her class to discover answers to their questions. She does this by fusing the story of fire safety with many other subjects in the elementary school's program—even using the children's interest in the fire as an avenue to teaching art, reading, arithmetic, spelling, and science. *Fire in Their Learning* is a 16mm sound film, 19 minutes in length—color prints, \$95; black-and-white prints, \$42. Further information can be obtained from the National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Degree Obsession

ROBERT La MASTER

WHAT is a degree? In the field of education a degree means much more than a dictionary definition—in fact, Webster might be amazed at the potency of this word were he so unfortunate as to return in these times. However, one need not reach as far into the past as Noah Webster to locate surprise at the condition of consideration given to degrees. In higher education, social position as well as pay is influenced by the type of degrees one has. Neither teaching competence nor knowledge of a field of study is indicated by the degree as it is now commonly interpreted. The highest degree to which one may aspire almost always demands a tremendous effort in research—a doctoral candidate should be keenly interested in such procedure—yet there are many schools which will not consider a teacher applicant unless he can show these magic symbols after his name. That may be one reason for much of the poor teaching which afflicts education. Let us look at the picture a little more closely.

Every spring and summer, administrators and school boards are harried by the responsibility of filling teaching positions with the best talent they can afford. What makes one applicant more attractive than the others? Many employers have not found the answer to this question, even with the help of studies on the subject by degree-bound graduate students. Often lists of desirable personal attributes form an important part of applicant scrutiny by school boards. One can hear employers occasionally make the statement, "I can tell if a person is a good teacher or not from a personal interview with him." Whatever type of teacher applicant yardstick is employed, one may be assured that advanced degrees will constitute a part of the measuring mechanism.

Does an advanced degree from a large university show ability for successful teaching? To those who are familiar with advanced degrees, the pattern will not lead to this conclusion—specialized study, sometimes beyond the point of usefulness in education below the graduate level; a number of required courses of traditional pattern which do not meet present teaching needs; oral and written tests of needless difficulty for the impressiveness gained thereby; and, on the brighter side of the ledger, an expanded collection of memorized data. In other words, some of the poorest teaching (by popular standards) is being done in higher education circles. Many educators teach as they have been taught, using the same texts and procedures. The type of graduate work often demanded for advanced degrees would undoubtedly discourage many graduate students from continuing their work if there were a logical and sane method to judge advance-

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ment, and if it were in common use. Let us hope that the future will provide someone with the ability to point out to the teaching profession that simply because degree granting schools offer advanced work, that in itself is no indication that teachers receiving this esoteric manna will become better teachers. It might be recalled that one degree from a particular school of high renown often entitles the bearer to favored consideration over an applicant with the same degree from a lesser known institution. Yet the question of which applicant is the better teacher seems to be answered through degree work only by inference—if that question arises at all.

GOOD TEACHING IS GOOD BUSINESS

If our goal is to employ good teachers instead of false prestige from high degrees, then isn't it about time for us to consider what constitutes good teaching in various fields and levels of education? Good teaching is good business. At a time when taxpayers leagues, malcontents, misguided persons and patriotic (?) organizations are sniping at the present educational structure, we must put our respective houses in order or suffer dire consequences from public opinion. Actually, the greatest sufferers from school ills are the students rather than the staff. What kind of honest answer can administrators give to the students' question, "What consideration did *we* receive when teachers were employed?" It may be fortunate that not many students will have the insight and courage to ask this question, but we as educators will have it to answer, nonetheless. To return to the subject of accusations against our schools, instead of making the single effort of self-defense in verbal or written retort, let us look over our field—even as the annual inspection by the farmer—and plow under those aspects which have long since served their purpose. Part of the present discontent with education is due to our own unwillingness to look at ourselves analytically and make the changes that common sense shows us are needed. It is so easy to let a "passable" system go on. By whatever good or bad name the satisfaction with *status quo* is labeled, the fact remains that such education is selling the public a faulty bill of goods and, hence, it is dishonest.

Almost all masters' and doctors' degrees imply research, especially the doctoral program. Why should anyone deliberately submit himself to the agonies of effort directed toward memory training and the accumulation of highly specialized information? The answer must be given by people who are primarily interested in research, by those who desire to teach on the college level and know that they will not receive consideration without a doctoral degree, or by some who are striving for prestige in education. Where research is of primary concern, teaching often follows as a barely tolerated adjunct. The college professor must devote some time to a teaching program since there are few opportunities for full-time library "digging," but the example he sets through a non-dynamic classroom handling of his subject proves to be a disappointment to his students and directly contributes to the ills of our profession. The person who

is so interested in research that he continues his investigations beyond the doctor's degree should be able to find some provision for his talent which does not include teaching. Let us encourage research, but let us separate the researcher from the teacher. And where prestige is concerned, let us hope that the day of enlightenment is not too far distant when genuine worth and ability will be valued above an advanced degree. Doesn't it sound utopian to imagine people in a community referring to their school system in these terms: "All of our teachers are good teachers" rather than, "We have ten doctors' degrees on our staff"? in which type of school system would you want your own children enrolled?

It seems that we as a nation are often loath to act in concert until a situation becomes desperate. However, the present time appears to be fully appropriate for better understanding among the various *strata* of people working in our schools. To this end we could well extend effort in groups to formulate a set of commandments or "thou shalts" for good teaching. These suggestions could well serve to balance considerations which now are overly influenced by advanced degrees. To the criticism that a meeting of minds on good teaching procedures would be unlikely, unworkable, or impossible, let us remember that the same criticism was leveled at the horseless carriage, the United Nations, and other enterprises which demanded courage and effort for their inception. Surely we do not lack courage to improve our station in life nor lack sufficient effort to set the improvement in motion.

The obsession with advanced degrees owes its existence in some measure to the power of tradition, to the misinterpretation of graduate work by those who employ teachers, as well as a general lack of understanding about good teaching. Again it is the students who suffer when tradition binds the perspective of educators and ears are not open to different points of view. Could it be that overemphasis on advanced degrees is one of the contributing causes for alert students—prospective teachers—to shun the teaching profession? Very little research is needed to learn that advance in pay, social status on some campuses, even the minimum consideration for employment itself is directly related to higher degrees than four years of college work normally provide. Prospective teachers may well ask themselves, "Is the status of teachers with advanced degrees worth what it takes to get the degrees?" For the same amount of study one may enter a profession in which the national average income is in five figures. It comes as a shock to many educators to learn that college teaching is not particularly well paid. In fact, large numbers of secondary-school teachers with bachelor's and master's degrees are receiving more salary than high ranking college teachers with doctor's degrees. Remuneration does merit some weight in the consideration of a career, and satisfaction in the work one is doing should not be considered a part of that remuneration. Criticism tends to become spiteful unless it is prompted by thoughts for constructive change. Do we have the answer for obsession with degrees?

Earth Science Principles Strengthen the Science Program of General Education in the Secondary School

LOREN T. CALDWELL

SCIENCE concepts (principles) of the earth¹ are finding an increasing emphasis in the classroom and in outdoor education in order to build better citizenship for all secondary-school pupils. The purpose of science in the American high school during the last fifty years has slowly changed from an emphasis on preparation for college and training for the specialist toward meeting an ever-increasing demand to prepare youth for living in a scientific culture. The same half century has been marked by a shift in the high-school population from a small selective group to a much larger group that includes most of the secondary-school-age group. With this increased enrollment, the high-school population has become more heterogeneous. A more diversified pupil population has brought to the high school an increase in the differences of pupil abilities and needs. This condition relative to individual differences among pupils has posed a major problem to instruction. This instructional problem is made more complex by the fact that high-school education is terminal education for approximately eighty per cent of the secondary-school population.²

These conditions pose an urgent and immediate need for curriculum reconstruction in the secondary-school offerings. At present, an immediate need for curriculum reconstruction rests upon the secondary-school science offerings. This need was expressed by Earl J. McGrath,³ indicating that the program of science for general education must be such as to make well-rounded and substantial contribution to the aim of general education. This aim in general education is to relate the basic sciences to their social implications. It seems reasonable that the use of earth science concepts in the science program of general education in the secondary school should portray many significant social implications of science.

¹ The areas of culture embraced by the term Earth Science include: geology, astronomy, weather and climate, and the scientific aspects of conservation.

² U. S. Office of Education, Education for Life Adjustment. *Vitalizing Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 3, Washington, D. C. 1951, 106 pp.

³ McGrath, E. J., Former U. S. Commissioner of Education. *Science in General Education*, 1948, 366 pp.

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There is a growing trend toward the use of earth science concepts (principles) as the guides to the selection of materials and to the teaching of science for general education in the secondary school. Early signs toward this trend began in 1932 when the Committee on the Teaching of Science⁴ indicated that the science curriculum for general education should be organized about large objectives. These large objectives should be principles which are functional for the individual and enable him to interpret his experiences of living. These principles which ramify most widely into human affairs should be stated as the objectives of this science program.

- Educational leaders in the secondary schools during the last twenty years have studied the problem of the function of science in the general education program for all secondary-school pupils. Yearbooks and committee reports of various national organizations have considered many aspects of the problem. At least forty-six independent research studies have dealt with the same curriculum problem. In 1941 Wise⁵ attempted to determine the physical science principles for general education, and in 1944 Martin⁶ attempted to determine the biological principles of importance in general science. Since 1945 there has been an increasing demand for better understanding of the scientific aspects of the entire earth. This has created a demand during the last eight years for an increased emphasis upon the earth sciences in the science program of general education in the secondary school. As a result of this growing demand, the author⁷ began a study⁸ in 1952 which attempted to determine the desirable principles from the earth sciences for the science program of general education in the secondary school.

In this study, the assistance of fifty teachers was solicited as a means of obtaining titles of source materials other than textbooks useful in teaching the earth sciences in the general education curriculum of the secondary school. In addition, publishing companies furnished titles of textbooks available for the same curriculum. In all, 185 different titles of published source materials other than textbooks were secured and thirty titles of textbooks were secured from as many publishing companies. From all of these titles, twelve titles of reference books, bulletins, and pamphlets and thirteen titles of textbooks were selected. These source materials were analyzed in order to secure statements of earth science principles. This analysis resulted in the compilation of a list of

⁴ National Society for the Study of Education, Committee on the Teaching of Science. *A Program of Teaching Science*. 1932. 364 pp.

⁵ Wise, Harold E. "A Determination of the Relative Importance of Principles of Physical Science for General Education." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Michigan, 1941. 767 pp.

⁶ Martin, W. E. *A Determination of the Principles of the Biological Sciences of Importance for General Education*. 1944. p. 15.

⁷ Caldwell, Loren T. *A Determination of Earth Science Principles Desirable for Inclusion in the Science Program of General Education in the Secondary School*. Doctor's Thesis, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1953.

⁸ To secure a brief of this study, write to the following address: Dr. Loren T. Caldwell, Acting Head, Earth Science Department, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois.

332 different statements of tentative earth science principles. These statements were refined and edited by a jury of science teachers to determine their scientific truth and whether they were statements of a principle. This refined list of earth science principles was then submitted to a jury of leaders in science education to determine their desirability for use in a science program of general education in the secondary school. From the list of 332 statements of earth science principles, 296 were given relative importance ratings indicating them as desirable for use in a science program of general education in the secondary school. From among these 296 principles of the earth sciences, about one third were related primarily to the area of geology; one fourth, to physical geography (including weather and climate); one fourth, to astronomy; and one sixth, to the scientific aspects of conservation.

This increased emphasis upon the earth⁸ has helped to bring the study of basic science principles to their natural applications and to their world-dominating social influences. The social implications which earth science principles focus on problems of health, nutrition, and conservation should greatly increase the social significance of their study for the secondary-school pupil. A world awareness of the occurrence, use, and distribution of physical and living commodities as related to the scientific aspects of our natural environments should help make citizenship responsibilities more apparent to all secondary-school pupils. Consequently, many educators believe that earth science concepts secured from earth science principles will function as a bridge of learning experiences between the basic sciences and the social studies. Such a function could strengthen the citizenship-building aspects of the general education curriculum in the secondary school.

Since both valid research studies and many national organs of secondary-school principals and superintendents have indicated the desirability of earth science principles in the science program of general education in the secondary school, it becomes the task of the science teacher to implement the curricular change. This change can best be promoted by the science teacher if the change is initiated through the secondary-school administrator.

The High School Theatre

FRANK L. MANSUR

ACCORDING to available statistics there are more than 24,938 public high schools (only heaven knows how many others) in the United States. Every one of them is teeming with pupils, and almost every one of those pupils is packed full of a potent charge of willing-to-be-directed enthusiasm, and looking for a sane channel in which to get rid of it. Not all of them want to put it to work in the same area, to be sure, but I am certain that even schoolmen themselves are blind to the number who would direct it into the field of the theatre, given a chance. For example, in our school of 450 pupils, it is a rare occasion when twenty-five per cent of them don't report for tryouts for a school play; and in a neighboring school out of a total enrollment of 300 in the sophomore class, 175 sophomore girls alone have reported to compete for places in a cast. *The football coach who gets a turnout like that considers himself a lucky man.*

Now of course not all of these enthusiastic young people have outstanding acting ability, nor do they all have an abiding love for the theatre, but many of them have some of both; and hidden in the mass of them are concealed our professional stars of the future, just as hidden in it in the past have been our stars of the present. I saw Ruth Gordon in what was probably her very first play—not with her name in lights on Broadway, but as an obscure little girl in a high-school play in one of our suburban high schools ten miles to the south of Boston. And at just about the same time ten miles to the north was a lanky high-school kid by the name of Walter Brennan.

Let us grant in the beginning that there are certain shortcomings in the high-school theatre. No doubt that is the reason why some of our friends look down their noses at it. True, the actors are untrained as they come to us. They have little or nothing of acting technique. They have small acquaintance with any type of bodily movement or poise not connected with the particular variation of the debutante slouch or the athletic stride current at the moment. They know very little of the manners and deportment of any period except their own. They lack any conception of the mental processes and the conventions that inhibited their grandmothers. But—and here is the point that those above are failing to recognize—they *can* be taught and they *are being* taught those things better under the best school and college directors today than in the professional summer theatres that seek them out to run errands as apprentices under the guise of instructing them. Really, you know, there is little useful dramatic virtue to be

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gained by helping Tallulah Bankhead into her cloak, and that is the kind of thing too many apprentices have to spend too much of their time doing.

Now, I have used the term "best school and college directors" advisedly, because I think part of the shortcomings lie in that area. It is sufficient that a school director shall have been graduated from a school of dramatic arts. It is not sufficient that she or he of course should be steeped in love of the theatre. It is not sufficient that she be an accomplished actress. *What is important is that innately she should first of all be a teacher, that she should know how to handle and to exact the respect of high-school pupils, and that she should be able to impart what she knows clearly and with imagination.* Given these personal qualities, then, and only then, her other assets of knowledge and of ability to act and of love of art may assume a position of all-importance. Otherwise, they are very little. And it seems to me that at the moment we are getting too much of the insufficiencies and not enough of the necessities.

One other of our weak points needs comment—that of underestimating what young people can accomplish. Standards are never lifted by activity conducted on a lower level. Consequently, when we select plays such as some of the publishing houses put out as high-school plays, we are defeating the very end that we have in view.

Do you not agree with me that there is a dearth of good plays for high schools? I don't mean plays that *sell* to high schools. I mean plays of real quality that high-school pupils can present to their public. I mean plays that have the elements that make a professional production a success *without the sophistication of situation and dialogue that makes impossible presenting them anywhere but on a professional stage.* I would venture to believe that any one would be hard put to it to name twenty-five plays of the kind I mean without bringing Shakespeare into the list, and you would even have to expurgate some of him. I wish too someone could come forward able to prepare for high schools the kind and quality of pageantry that Paul Green has produced for the Williamsburg festivals. I think his fortune would be made.

My experience is that high-school pupils are rather keen at distinguishing between the good and the poor, once they have had experience with the good. My experience is that they can discriminate, and that they prefer and will select the good. And I have learned this—that to bring out the real ability that lies in a pupil, you must offer him a challenge. And so I say, stop shying away from good plays. Seek them out. Let your young actors—and yourself—find the pleasure that comes from growth by effort. Let them have a try at *The Barretts of Wimpole Street*, *I Remember Mama*, *Quality Street*, *Captain Applejack*, *Our Hearts Were Young and Gay*, or *Seventeenth Summer*. If you haven't done so, you'll be surprised at what results.

Oh, I know why some of you don't do that. The only acceptable reason you can offer to the authorities in your school for having a play at all is to raise

money for sweaters for the football team or the band. And so you have to tune yourself to the Mickey Mouse mentality of the audience that will be there. In chagrin I have to acknowledge the existence of the situation, and so I say our first need is a campaign of education for educators. *By hook or by crook, we have got to convince high-school principals and school superintendents and members of school committees to far greater numbers than at present that theatre for high-school pupils is a worth-while, dignified activity of sufficient value in itself to stand on its own feet and to proceed to its own goals, and that diverting it, or using it to some subsidiary end, is not assisting but crippling its purpose and its worthwhileness.*

And not only must we accomplish that, but we must make them see that for its best development it must have equipment as specialized as does any other laboratory. Then—and I say this as one who has handled school finances for many years—we must be able to show them how that can be done without bankrupting them. We can defeat ourselves by indiscretion in that direction, so we ourselves must know the differences between adequacy and extravagance.

I know how bad facilities are in many schools, but poor facilities are not necessarily a reason for doing nothing. Why not make a start with what we have, and let the handicap of inadequacy be the argument for what we might do with something better? *The point is to produce a product worth something better.* That is the quick way to gaining an end in the school business. The other, and the slower, is to be belligerently aggressive to the point of offending someone, and take a beating for years without end.

WHAT CAN BE DONE?

Now the question is, what are we going to do about our situation? What can an organization, such as the New England Theatre Conference or The National Thespian Society, do to help us, and how willing is it to do anything at all? What is the cure for the troubles we have? I don't know the specific answer to any of those questions, but I know what I would like to see done as a feeble beginning. And by way of illustration, let me turn to school athletics.

"Why," we ask, "can we not have the same public support for school theatre that we have for school athletics?" Well, I doubt if we shall ever get that, but I do think we can come much nearer to it than we are at the present. The two activities are so basically different in their natures as hardly to lead us to expect the same responses. The one is competitive; the other is cultural. The theatre does not lend itself to mass hysteria and violent partisanship; athletics do. They are born out of competition and partisanship, and they thrive on hysteria.

But let me point out to you that part of this avid interest in schoolboy athletics is an artificial development instigated by the daily newspapers. The athletic contests of the local schools weren't always haunted by the local press. There was a time—and this is a matter of personal experience—when, if a game was to be reported at all, some member of the school—often as not the coach—wrote

the account and sent it to the paper free. Then some enterprising sports editor apparently saw a light. If the games were in the paper, the boys bought the paper and circulation went up, and his worth to the paper went up with it. And from that beginning the schoolboy athletic news became what it is today. A closely parallel growth is quietly in process at the moment. Did you not notice that the "Little League" activities of 10-year-old youngsters have been getting anywhere up to a column a day on the sporting pages of some of the Boston papers during the past summer?

Why then cannot something of the same nature be done for the school theatre? The power of the press is what we are talking about. I don't mean a press that will present the unfortunate distortion that a national magazine presented of a school theatre a couple of years or so ago. If that had happened to me, I would have been much distressed. That was what I call obstructive press. Nor do I mean a press that gives lip service by protesting its interest and then doing nothing about it. I mean a modest dignified press that will give assistance in keeping with what we are trying to do.

Specifically, I would like to find someone willing to go just far enough to spare three or four or five inches of the page on which reviews appear, to print once a week a little box headed "High-School Theatre," or some equally descriptive title. In it, I would like to see listed the school plays for that week, with a list, perhaps, of the pupils in the casts. Would it be worth their while? I don't know, but I am almost certain that as many people would read it as read most of the rest of the theatrical page except the movie ads.

Would it grow beyond that? I don't know that, either. But it might be that after the editors had kept their ears to the ground for a year or two and had found out where the best work was being done, they might even find someone on their staff who would be willing to go out to that community and see a school play and—who knows? even mention it in the column.

And finally, I would like to say this to those editors; there are school plays that are worthy it. Heaven knows I wouldn't ask you to rush about the country taking in every school production that comes along. You would die of ennui before the end of a week. But I have seen a production of *Peter Pan* done by high-school pupils so far superior to any performances ever produced by professional and semi-professional companies in Boston as to put them to shame, and you write them up. And I have seen *The Barretts of Wimpole Street* and *The Marriage Proposal* and *I Remember Mama* done by high-school casts with an excellence of acting and an atmosphere of sincerity much more satisfying than many of the bored perfunctory performances I have witnessed from professional companies in the summer theatres adjacent to my town and you write them up.

Won't you please, then, as an experiment, try taking your eyes off that big name in lights on the marquee for just a moment, and see who is standing by your side?

Junior High Schools Versus the Traditional (8-4) High School Organization

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A WIDESPREAD and growing interest is apparent in the comparative merits of the reorganized high schools and those in the regular 8-4 plan, which for so many years dominated the public school systems of the United States. For this reason summary statements of some of the *pro* and *con* arguments urged by leading educators¹ for each of the major types of high-school organization are here set forth. The advantages and disadvantages listed are neither exhaustive nor authoritative. Their chief purpose is to help those concerned with organizing or abandoning junior high schools to determine the problems involved and discuss them with community leaders.

To further this purpose, certain statistical data are also presented. These are drawn from the national surveys of public secondary education made periodically by the United States Office of Education.² These statistics show that reorganization of the school systems to include some form of junior high school is going forward rapidly.

It should be stated at the outset that each of the advantages claimed has been found in both forms of high-school organization. Neither can claim a monopoly of any given advantage listed. A comprehensive discussion of the data available which relate to each claim would result in an extensive treatise. It was, therefore, the authors' purpose to set forth here only those advantages for each of the two major types of high-school organization which seemed to stand out in the professional literature.

Since the burden of proof has more often been upon those who would reorganize the high school, its advocates seem to have been more prolific in advancing supporting arguments than the defenders of the traditional—the 8-4—form of school organization. This may account for the longer list of advantages here presented for the reorganized schools.

¹ See list of references: Circular 369, U. S. Office of Education, and NASSP BULLETIN, Dec. 1951, pp. 126-42.

² The most recent data are from "Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, 1951-52," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, Chapter V. Washington 25, D. C.: Gov. Printing Office.

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I. SOME ADVANTAGES OF THE TRADITIONAL (8-4) HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION IN THE INSTRUCTION OF EARLY ADOLESCENTS

1. Too often the junior high schools imitate the senior high schools in emphasizing subject matter instruction, arbitrary pupil appraisal practices, harsh promotion and failure procedures, *etc.* Efforts to serve all youth and to grade each in relation to his capacities are found to a greater extent in the elementary schools. Therefore, retaining grades seven and eight in the elementary-school organization is more likely to extend these progressive practices upward than placing these grades in the secondary school.

2. Secondary-school programs rigidly divided into junior and senior segments often create two gaps instead of bridging the one originally existing in the traditionally organized school system. Greater integration between elementary and secondary education is desirable, but neither type of high-school organization will automatically achieve this objective.

3. Many junior high schools are formed by school administrators to solve school building problems rather than to improve instruction. Moreover, modern facilities—auditorium, gymnasium, library—commonly provided in the new junior high-school buildings too often exhaust the available funds, thus leaving the elementary-school pupils remaining in older buildings without the facilities needed for improving their instruction.

4. It is probably true that the reorganization of the high schools makes possible greater flexibility of building-space management. However, it has been found that, through better planning of the schools organized on the 8-4 plan, much of the desired flexibility can also be achieved. The educational advantages sought do not primarily stem from new buildings nor from organizational forms, but from better teaching and better relationships between pupils and teachers. This is true for both the traditionally organized and the reorganized high schools.

5. Too often the junior high-school organization encourages educators to delude themselves into thinking they have improved the teaching and learning situation of early adolescents by the simple strategy of setting up a new school organization. The traditional organization is more likely to keep the focus of educational activities upon the fundamental objective of the school; *i.e.*, the normal and continuous growth and development of pupils under a teacher who knows them intimately and who is a part of a simple staff organization.

6. The traditional school organization provides an environment in which pupils mature naturally. Social activities and all other paraphernalia and machinery emphasized in the junior high schools contribute to the "hot house" situation already present in the modern environment because of movies, television, radios, and periodicals, all of which encourage youth to imitate adults and to strive to be more mature than they really are.

7. The traditional school organization affords a more natural guidance situation for pupils of grades seven and eight than the junior high school since it more commonly provides for all teachers to serve as guidance officers and for all instruction to become a guidance activity. There is little departmentalization, and each teacher works with a limited number of pupils long enough to become well acquainted with them. The junior high schools commonly set up complex and expensive guidance structures, designed to create situations which exist naturally in the family-like settings of the traditionally organized school and classroom.

II. SOME ADVANTAGES OF ORGANIZING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF EARLY ADOLESCENTS

1. There are many problems of early adolescents with which neither the elementary school nor the senior high school can cope adequately. It is important that boys and girls of this age span (approximately 12-14) be grouped together in learning situations. On the one hand, they feel more mature than the "children" in the first six grades, and superior to them; on the other hand, they feel left out in the planning and activities of the youth fifteen to eighteen years of age, who dominate student life in the traditional high schools. Young adolescents like to feel that they are in "high school" even though it carries the prefix "junior." This sense of status—of belonging—helps to keep them in school and to motivate their interest during this explosive period of their lives.

2. Junior high schools emphasize pupil activities. Pupils of this age group need to participate in more such activities—self-government, school management, community projects, clubs, discussion groups. They need to exercise more responsibility than is commonly given them in the elementary schools, but less than is demanded in the senior high schools. They need learning experiences to help them mature gradually and under favorable conditions, both with regard to pupils of their own age and to their teachers.

3. The shift from one-teacher-all-day to full departmentalization on a subject matter basis should not be as abrupt as it usually is from the grades to the regular high school. A good junior high school departmentalizes in part; *i.e.*, part of the day the pupils go to teachers specializing in subject matter and part of the day they work together in home rooms or on core projects in which teachers of two or more subjects co-operate in co-ordinated projects. Eventually every pupil needs to assume full responsibility for his education, but not too early in life. The junior high school lends itself well to the gradual shift from the elementary one-grade, one-classroom process to the full departmentalized subject matter teaching of the senior high school with its wider choice of electives and greater self-direction.

4. As a rule, junior high schools in much greater numbers than elementary schools provide guidance officers specially trained to help the maturing pupils

study and understand themselves, their school, and their associates. They give more attention to helping youth (1) to develop better self-understanding, (2) to appreciate what public secondary education is all about, and (3) to know how this school is organized and what its functions are in their own lives and in the community it serves. The junior high school is likely to put more emphasis on permanent records and reports, on use of objective tests and measurements in instruction, and on contacts between the school and the social and industrial life of the community.

5. As a new and unique part of the school system, the junior high school is in a strong position to provide for individual differences which become accentuated during adolescence and to deal with problems of pubescence and maladjustment which appear in greater numbers. These need to be recognized and planned for in the school's program and schedule and are more often overlooked in schools organized on the 8-4 plan.

6. Teachers prefer positions in the junior high schools to those in the elementary schools. The salary and equipment are likely to be better, resulting in better selection and longer retention of junior high-school teachers. Moreover, because of the greater opportunities afforded by these schools to specialize on the educational problems of maturing adolescents and to concentrate on specific subject matter fields, junior high-school teachers are in a better position to produce superior teaching than those working in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools.

7. Another important advantage of the junior high school is that it lends itself better than the 8-4 plan to gearing school building programs to the needs of pupils of various age levels. Nearby neighborhood junior high schools can adequately serve the simpler needs of the younger pupils; centralized senior high schools located farther away can provide more comprehensive services to older youth. The 6-3-3 plan can provide seventh- and eighth-grade pupils with a wider educational program than is usually available under the 8-4 plan.

8. The reorganized school system makes possible greater flexibility in building-space management. If the grade schools are crowded, the upper grades—or parts of them—can without radical changes be shifted from the elementary schools to the more centralized junior high schools; if the central senior high school is crowded, part or all of the lower high-school grade can be sent temporarily to utilize any available space in the junior high school. Or temporary reverse shifts can be made if necessary. The resulting grade arrangements may not be ideal, but, with rapid shifts among the various age groups needing school-room space, due to high mobility of population and rapid economic changes, greater elasticity in control of school-building space is desirable.

9. Recent years have witnessed an insistent demand for far-reaching changes in the program and services of the secondary schools. One source of this demand stems from the rapid increase in the number and type of youth who desire

entrance to these schools. In the face of the growing pressure for more and better education for youth of high-school age, there has been much resistance of rising costs of education. Reorganization of school systems along junior high-school lines has become the most acceptable way of bringing about desired improvements and of doing this within reasonable costs for more buildings, equipment, and staff.

III. STATISTICAL TRENDS AND STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL REORGANIZATION

As indicated at the outset, the statistics reveal that the reorganization of the schools to include some form of junior high school has gone forward rapidly. This trend has accelerated since 1946. A word of caution is, however, needed in examining the over-all secondary-school enrollment trends. The total number of pupils attending grades seven and eight of the public schools increased from 2,920,000 in 1920 (Table 1) to 3,895,000 in 1938. Then it fell to 3,491,000 in 1946 and rose slightly to 3,699,000 in 1952. These changes were due in part to population increases and in part to the holding power of these schools.

TABLE 1—SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF ORGANIZATION AND BY YEARS INDICATED
(In thousands)

	1920		1930		1938		1946		1952	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
All Public Schools	2,920	100.0	3,631	100.0	3,895	100.0	3,491	100.0	3,699	100.0
Regular (8-4) Plan	2,778	95.2	2,564	70.6	2,405	61.8	2,043	58.6	1,706	46.1
Reorganized	142	4.8	1,067	29.4	1,490	38.2	1,488	41.4	1,993	53.9

For purposes of this report, however, it should be noted that the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils enrolled in the secondary schools rose almost continuously from 142,000 in 1920 to 1,993,000 in 1952. During this same period, enrollments in these grades in the 8-4 elementary schools fell from 2,778,000 to 1,706,000. It is evident that this drop is due chiefly to the shifting of these grades to the new junior high-school forms of organization. In 1920 there were less than five per cent of the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in the reorganized schools; by 1952 this proportion had risen to over half (53.9 per cent) of the total.

Of the 23,746 public secondary day schools in continental United States in 1952, only 42.8 per cent reported the traditional form of organization (Table 2, Section A). Of the secondary schools classified as reorganized, now totaling 57.2 per cent of all public high schools, 13.6 per cent were junior high schools, 7.4 per cent were senior high schools, and 36.2 per cent were junior-senior high schools.

In terms of enrollments (Table 2, Section B) the trend toward reorganizing to include some form of junior high school has been even more pronounced. Only about one fourth, or 25.2 per cent of the pupils attending public secondary day schools in 1952 were in schools organized on the 8-4 plan; whereas more than one third; 35.1 per cent, were in junior-senior or undivided high schools; about one fifth, or 19.8 per cent, were in junior high schools; and a similar number, 19.9 per cent, were in senior high schools.

It is to be noted that the reorganization of the public secondary schools has been especially favored in the cities of 10,000 or more population (Table 3, Section A). Of all the 10,168 regularly organized high schools remaining in 1952, only 614, or 6.1 per cent, were in these larger cities; 8,463, or 83.2 per cent, were located in the rural areas (under 2,500 population). Since city high schools usually have large enrollments and those in rural communities small, the proportions of pupils attending these schools were, respectively, 33.3 per cent and 48.4 per cent (Table 4, Section A).

Considering the distribution of the several types of public high schools by size of localities somewhat differently, it may be noted that of the 4,082 located in the larger cities in 1952 (Table 3, Section B) 42.0 per cent were junior high schools, 26.8 per cent were senior high schools, 15.0 per cent were regular high schools, and 16.2 per cent were of the junior-senior type. The pupils enrolled in the several types of public high schools of these large cities (Table 4, Section B) were, respectively, 32.6, 33.9, 17.1, and 16.4 per cent. The high schools in rural localities (see Tables 3 and 4, Sections B) show a very different distribution from those in the large cities; those regularly organized (8-4 plan) comprised 53.0 per cent of the entire number and enrolled 37.2 per cent of all of the pupils; those organized as junior-senior high schools comprised 39.8 per cent and enrolled 54.3 per cent of the pupils. It appears that even in the country the reorganized high schools were in 1952 serving well over three out of every five pupils.

Some additional statistics for the school year 1951-52 are presented to show the enrollments in each grade by type of school (Table 5). They reveal that, of the total number of pupils attending the public secondary day schools, nearly two million (Col. 2), or about one fourth (26.0 per cent), were in grades seven and eight, and three per cent more were unclassified or post-graduate pupils, chiefly the former. The number of seventh- and eighth-grade pupils found in the separately organized junior high schools was only slightly larger than in those organized as junior-senior (3-3 and 5- and 6-year, high schools (Cols. 3 and 6).

These grade enrollments also show that by far almost all (99 per cent, of the pupils attending the separately organized junior high schools were in grades seven, eight, and nine; only one per cent were in grade ten; and estimates show there was about an equal number of sixth-grade pupils grouped with grade

TABLE 2—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS AND ENROLLMENTS BY TYPE OF ORGANIZATIONS: 1920, 1930, 1938, 1946, AND 1952

Type of School	1920			1930			1938			1946			1952		
	Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11					
Section A—Schools															
Total ¹	14,326	100.0	22,237	100.0	25,057	100.0	24,122	100.0	23,746	100.0					
Junior.....	55	0.4	1,842	8.3	2,372	9.5	2,653	11.0	3,227	13.6					
Senior.....	22	.1	648	2.9	959	3.8	1,312	5.4	1,760	7.4					
Regular.....	13,421	93.7	16,460	74.0	15,523	61.9	13,797	57.2	10,168	42.8					
Junior-Senior....	828	5.8	3,287	14.8	6,203	24.8	6,360	26.4	8,591	36.2					
Section B—Enrollments															
Total ²	1,999,106	100.0	5,212,179	100.0	7,423,573	100.0	6,840,799	100.0	7,688,919	100.0					
Junior ³	37,331	1.9	1,036,919	19.9	1,408,384	19.0	1,274,523	18.6	1,526,996	19.8					
Senior.....	17,791	0.9	543,813	10.4	972,218	13.1	1,148,632	16.8	1,528,006	19.9					
Regular.....	1,667,480	83.4	2,652,271	50.9	3,230,708	43.5	2,632,021	38.5	1,937,210	25.2					
Junior-Senior ³ ..	276,504	13.8	979,176	18.8	1,812,063	24.4	1,785,623	26.1	2,696,707	35.1					

¹ Excludes ungraded day schools, as follows: 34 in 1938, 24 in 1946, and 11 in 1952.² Excludes enrollments in ungraded day schools as follows: 34,472 in 1938; 20,231 in 1946; and 4,221 in 1952.³ Includes pupils enrolled in grades seven and eight forming parts of these secondary schools.

TABLE 3—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND BY SIZE OF CENTER IN WHICH LOCATED, 1951-52

Type of School	Totals		Rural (Under 2,500)		Urban-I (2,500-9,999)		Urban-II (10,000 or more)	
	Number	Pct.	Number	Pct.	Number	Pct.	Number	Pct.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Section A (read across)								
All Schools ¹	23,746	100.0	15,975	67.3	3,689	15.5	4,082	17.2
Junior.....	3,227	100.0	942	29.2	571	17.7	1,714	53.1
Senior.....	1,760	100.0	207	11.8	460	26.1	1,093	62.1
Regular.....	10,168	100.0	8,463	83.2	1,091	10.7	614	6.1
Junior-Senior.....	8,591	100.0	6,363	74.1	1,567	18.2	661	7.7
Section B (read down)								
All Schools ¹	23,746	100.0	15,975	100.0	3,689	100.0	4,082	100.0
Junior.....	3,227	13.6	942	5.9	571	15.5	1,714	42.0
Senior.....	1,760	7.4	207	1.3	460	12.4	1,093	26.8
Regular.....	10,168	42.8	8,463	53.0	1,091	29.6	614	15.0
Junior-Senior.....	8,591	36.2	6,363	39.8	1,567	42.5	661	16.2

Section A reads: Of the 3,227 junior high schools, 29.2 per cent are located in rural areas, 17.7 per cent in the smaller cities, and 53.1 per cent in the larger cities.
 Section B reads: Of the 15,975 public high schools located in rural areas, 5.9 per cent are junior high schools, 1.3 per cent senior high schools, 12.4 per cent are regular (4-year) high schools, and 39.8 per cent are junior-senior high schools.
¹ Excludes ungraded schools (11 in number).

TABLE 4—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND BY SIZE OF CENTER IN WHICH LOCATED, 1951-52

	Rural (Under 2,500)			Urban-I (2,500-9,999)			Urban-II (10,000 or more)		
	Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.		Number	Pct.	
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Section A (read across)									
All Schools ¹	7,688,919	100.0	2,517,088	32.7	1,385,270	18.0	3,786,561	49.3	
Junior ²	1,526,996	100.0	144,651	9.5	149,671	9.8	1,232,674	80.7	
Senior.....	1,528,006	100.0	67,895	4.4	175,185	11.5	1,284,926	84.1	
Regular.....	1,937,210	100.0	937,339	48.4	353,738	18.3	646,133	33.3	
Junior-Senior ²	2,696,707	100.0	1,367,203	50.7	706,676	26.2	622,828	23.1	
Section B (read down)									
All Schools ¹	7,688,919	100.0	2,517,088	100.0	1,385,270	100.0	3,786,561	100.0	
Junior ²	1,526,996	19.8	144,651	5.8	149,671	10.8	1,232,674	32.6	
Senior.....	1,528,006	19.9	67,895	2.7	175,185	12.7	1,284,926	33.9	
Regular.....	1,937,210	25.2	937,339	37.2	353,738	25.5	646,133	17.1	
Junior-Senior ²	2,696,707	35.1	1,367,203	54.3	706,676	51.0	622,828	16.4	

Section A reads: Of the 7,688,919 pupils enrolled in all public day high schools, 32.7 per cent attended such schools in rural communities, 18.0 per cent attended in the smaller cities, and 49.3 per cent attended the city high schools.

Section B reads: Of the 2,517,088 pupils attending public day high schools of the rural communities, 3.8 per cent were in junior high schools, 2.7 per cent in senior high schools, 37.2 per cent in regular high schools, and 54.3 per cent in junior-senior high schools.

¹ Excludes pupils (4,221 in number) in ungraded schools.

² Includes seventh- and eighth-grade pupils enrolled in junior high schools.

TABLE 5—GRADE ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC DAY HIGH SCHOOLS BY TYPES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION, 1951-52

		<i>Total</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>Senior</i>	<i>Regular</i>	<i>Junior-Senior</i>
		2	3	4	5	6
Total	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	7,688,919 100.0	1,526,996 100.0	1,528,006 100.0	1,937,210 100.0	2,696,707 100.0
Grade 7	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	957,228 12.5	533,312 ¹ 35.0	423,916 ¹ 15.7
Grade 8	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	1,035,885 13.5	531,176 35.0	504,709 18.7
Grade 9	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	1,741,085 22.6 (30.6) ²	438,999 29.0 (95.0) ²	164,169 10.7	602,023 31.0	535,894 20.0 (30.3) ²
Grade 10	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	1,539,442 20.0 (27.0)	14,483 .9 (3.1)	524,482 34.3	519,654 27.0	480,823 17.8 (27.2)
Grade 11	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	1,306,975 17.0 (23.0)	458,807 30.0	440,781 22.7	407,387 15.1 (23.0)
Grade 12	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	1,086,365 14.1 (19.0)	373,683 24.5	371,787 19.2	340,895 12.6 (19.3)
Unclassified ³	{ <i>No.</i> <i>Pct.</i>	21,939 .3 (0.4)	9,026 .1 (1.9)	6,865 0.5	2,965 0.1	3,083 0.1 (0.2)

¹ Includes a few pupils in grade six, estimated less than one per cent.² Data in parentheses show percentages of pupils in last four years and those grouped as unclassified.³ Includes unclassified pupils (17,426) and post-graduate pupils (4,513).

seven. However, nearly eleven per cent of the enrollments of the separately organized senior high schools were in grade nine. The junior-senior high schools (Col. 6) reported somewhat more than one third (34.4 per cent) in grades seven and eight. A small number of the undivided schools especially in southern states, recently changing from the eleventh- to the twelfth-grade system, had five grades beginning with the eighth.

Since the original high schools of the United States consisted of grades 9 to 12, inclusive, many people still think of this level of education in terms of these four grades. These people want to know the high-school statistics for the "last four years." Percentage distributions were, therefore, also computed separately for the schools involving the junior high-school grades (see data in parentheses, Table 5). The regular high schools revealed percentages as follows: 31.0 for grade nine, 27.0 for grade ten, 22.7 for grade eleven, and 19.2 for grade twelve. The junior-senior high schools showed 30.3, 27.2, 23.0, and 19.3, respectively. When comparable data for the separately organized junior and senior high schools are thrown together for the last four grades, and percentages computed (not shown), these were: 30.3, 27.1, 23.1, and 18.8. In each case there were a few pupils unclassified.

Extracurricular Funds Accounting in the Various States: A Preliminary Report

WILSON H. IVINS
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THE BACKGROUND OF THIS REPORT

MANY state departments of education and several associations of secondary-school people have shown increased interest recently in the problem of accounting for funds of those organizations and enterprises of school pupils that are commonly called extracurricular activities. This increased interest is evident among the secondary-school people in New Mexico. In recent years both the development of extracurricular programs and the gradual inflation of currency have explained the tremendous sums of money received and expended in this school program. For example, an official of the Department of Education of the state of North Carolina has estimated that more than twenty-three million dollars was handled in the secondary schools of that state in 1952 within the extracurricular program. Also, in only recent years have school people begun to think seriously about the many implications for learning that are involved in pupil-teacher handling of such sums in this program.

SURVEY OF ACCOUNTING PATTERNS IN VARIOUS STATES

It is for these and other reasons that principals in New Mexico expressed interest this year in a study of extracurricular fund accounting that would reveal current practices and possibly serve as a basis for recommending a desirable uniform procedure for the secondary schools of this state. The brief report that follows is a condensation of the survey (only) of practices in extracurricular accounting in the various states that makes up a small part of the total study recently completed by the writers and soon to be prepared for publication. The reader should note that this report does not do many things that the final study will do in detail. Among these things are: (1) definition of the scope of the problem; (2) statement of the study problem; (3) definition of terms; (4) presentation and discussion of problems involved in accounting; (5) presentation and discussion of educational implications of accounting; and (6) statement of general conclusions and recommendations. The sole purpose of the report is to show briefly, and with tabular supplement, what procedures for extracurricular accounting now exist in the various states.

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Methods of Obtaining Information

In October, 1953, the writers addressed letters to superintendents in departments of education or instruction in each of the states except New Mexico. Each letter asked the question, "Does your state have legislation or authorize a uniform departmental policy (or both) that regulates accounting for extracurricular funds of public schools within the state?" Each letter requested also that the department send to the writers any published laws, statements of department policy, or other published materials that would assist in studying the situation in the state. Forty-five¹ of the state departments of education responded to this letter. The response from officials of the department of education of the state of Kentucky was especially valuable because it included a copy of a department bulletin² that was, in effect, an abstract of a recent master's thesis³ that closely paralleled this study. From this bulletin, information was obtained about the accounting situation in three of the states whose departments of education did not respond to the writers' letters of inquiry.

Three Patterns of Practice in Extracurricular Funds Accounting

As soon as responses to the letters were received, they were studied and analyzed. When all of the replies had been analyzed, categories of likeness in features of the patterns of practice in accounting were arranged in the table⁴ that forms the supplemental summary of this report. Into this table were placed the data received from each state. During this process of tabulation after analysis, it became apparent that there are three patterns of practice in the states at the present time: (1) individual schools or school boards may account for these funds in whatever manner they choose without interference or control from either state law or regulatory policy of the department of education of the state concerned (A variant of this pattern gives the school or school board freedom, but provides for *recommendation* of desirable practices by the department of education.); (2) schools or school boards are required to conform to provisions of a state law that establishes procedures for accounting; and (3) schools or school boards are required to adhere to provisions of regulatory policies determined by the state's department of education. In this pattern there is no specific state law pertinent to extracurricular funds accounting, but the laws establishing the state department of education and describing its authority, of course, have an indirect effect of control of accounting practices.

¹ No information was sought from the department of education of the state of New Mexico. School districts in this state establish their own accounting procedures and are not subject to legislation or regulatory policies.

² *A Proposed Program of Accounting for Extracurricular Activity Funds in Kentucky Schools*, Educational Bulletin, Department of Education, Frankfort, Vol. XXI, No. 6, August, 1953.

³ Alexander, Samuel. *A Proposed Program of Accounting for Extracurricular Activity Funds in Kentucky Schools*, Master's Thesis, Western Kentucky State College, July, 1952.

⁴ See Tables IA and IB, pp. 128-133.

In addition to these three patterns, it was discovered that a few states have both specific laws and state department of education policies. However, additional information, received in letters from officials of departments of education in those states where specific laws are in force, indicates that in most of these states development of uniform state department regulatory policies is usually considered to be desirable but is also usually postponed in favor of more pressing problems.

Inspection of Table IAB shows that in general the pattern of practice that will henceforth be called *laissez faire* is most common in the states. However, the recent dates of establishment for both laws and regulatory policies indicate that this condition may not last much longer. This speculation is bolstered by the fact that numerous officials in states where the *laissez faire* pattern is in force indicated that development of uniform practices for accounting was desirable or that the department involved was "studying the problem of developing either legislation or departmental policies." Further inspection of the table and consideration of additional information supplied in letter responses suggests also that there may be rather close relationships between the policies of accrediting associations and practices of schools, at least where larger schools are involved. This possibility was especially noticeable when study was made of the practices in several states where schools belong to the Northwest Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, but no general conclusions were based upon the possibility.

Before presenting the three patterns of practice in detail, it seems desirable to point out here that Table IAB shows clearly that uniform accounting procedures developed in the states having laws for regulation of accounting closely parallel the uniform procedures developed in the states where regulation is placed under control of the state department of education. This suggests that both groups of states are actually adhering to the same principles with respect to accounting. If this is true, it then becomes proper to say that belief in the desirability of and necessity for uniform accounting procedures is strong and that it is rapidly becoming stronger than belief in the desirability of a *laissez faire* pattern.

PATTERN IN STATES WHERE EXTRACURRICULAR ACCOUNTING IS REGULATED BY SPECIFIC LEGISLATION

Eleven of the states belong to this pattern. State department of education officials in ten of them (Arizona, California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Montana, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania) responded to the writers' letters of inquiry and enclosed copies of the state laws concerning accounting. New Jersey officials did not respond, but information in the Kentucky State Department of Education bulletin⁵ indicates that this state does have regulatory laws. Because the bulletin did not specifically describe

⁵ *op. cit.*

the law (implying instead that it was harmonious with the general pattern revealed in analyses of the laws of North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia) it is assumed here that it is in substantially the same form as the pattern to be described. It should be noted here that recent laws were received from departments in the states of Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, and Montana, but were not reported in the Kentucky bulletin. This fact is evidence of the recency of interest in legislation on the problem. It will be noted also that the writers have not included the state of West Virginia in the pattern. This is because study of the law for that state reveals that it is so general that it might be interpreted by some persons as not being legislation *specifically* designed to establish uniform accounting procedures for extracurricular activities. It should be noted also that the Connecticut and Massachusetts laws also are so brief that one might exclude these states from the pattern, except that brief as they are, they do make specific provision for expenditure of and accounting for public funds used in the extracurricular program.

Definition of Funds

Within this pattern, the term most commonly applied to the funds is "extracurricular funds." However, in three instances the funds are referred to as "student funds" or "special activity funds."

The Central Treasurer

The laws all provide that a central treasurer shall handle these funds after they are collected by the individual organizations or groups. Several methods of selecting this central treasurer are used, the most typical being appointment by the school board, the superintendent, or the principal. It is suggested, quite generally, that this central treasurer could be the principal, some member of the faculty appointed by the principal, an office clerk, or other employee of the school. The implications of the laws seem to indicate that the person selected should be an adult. Little, if any, consideration seems to have been given to possible values and appreciations of democratic principles that might come to pupils if they were allowed to help in the handling of these funds and their records.

The Principle of Bonding

All of the states in this pattern specifically require bonding of the individual or individuals handling the funds, with the exception of Montana. Although Montana schools are not specifically bound by statutes on this point, any school that is a member of the Northwestern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges is required by that Association to have the responsible person bonded. Iowa further requires that not only the individual actually handling the funds

be bonded, but that also all persons responsible for accounting for or administering these funds shall be bonded. North Carolina requires bonding of all persons authorized to sign checks drawn on these funds.

Although no specific amount is pre-determined by law for this bond, typically the amount of bond is fixed by the individual school boards as required by their particular situations. Indiana deviates from this practice somewhat by restricting the amount to be fixed at a sum approximating the total amount which it is anticipated will be handled by the treasurer at any one time and allows any school system wherein the total receipts are estimated to be less than \$300 during the school year to be exempted from the bonding requirements. Further, only Indiana specifically requires, by law, the recording of the surety bond with the county recorder.

Legally Approved Depository

Typically, the legally approved depository for extracurricular funds is a bank, although North Carolina also allows the use of any trust company or other depository authorized to do business in that state. Arizona, a state of widely scattered villages and towns, provides an exception in the event banking facilities are not readily available by allowing the administrator of the school to be appointed as treasurer and allowed to handle the funds in the most expedient and practical manner so long as they are adequately safeguarded:

Methods of Expending Funds

As would be expected in this pattern, the approved method of withdrawal is by checks. Many state laws stress the value of pre-numbering the checks. Further safeguarding of the funds is indicated by the typical requirement of more than one signature on the check. Usually it is required that the check be countersigned by the principal or other person appointed by the school board. North Carolina does not require checks to be countersigned in schools handling less than \$300 annually or in schools where it has been previously determined by the school board that this is not necessary. The states vary in the type of request required to authorize the drawing of a check, but tend towards a written request originating with the organization or group concerned. The laws usually require or recommend that such requests be signed by a student officer (treasurer) and approved by the faculty sponsor or other responsible person. Illinois and Indiana laws prohibit overdrafts of funds by any group, but Iowa law permits deficits to be paid from the general fund of the school and repaid to the general fund when available in the activities funds. Arizona laws permit the establishment of a revolving fund to meet current expenses of student activities, with the amount used from the revolving fund to be credited to the school from the activities funds at the close of the fiscal year, so that public funds budgeted into revolving funds are not actually used for the sup-

port of extracurricular activities, only loaned for this purpose so long as the loan is repaid within the fiscal year.

Records of Accounts

Most of the laws do not go into long or detailed descriptions of records to be kept of accounts, but all indicate that accurate and detailed accounts of all receipts and disbursements should be kept. Most of the states have taken advantage of this fact to prescribe various types of business forms to be used in keeping records. The fact that the forms prescribed are not specifically provided in the laws allows for some variation in schools that makes possible adaptation to their individual problems. Comparison of the forms described for use indicates that any good, standard system of bookkeeping forms could be adapted.

Reports and Reconciliations

Monthly reconciliations of bank statements are recommended by the laws. In the interests of sound bookkeeping practices, the laws recommend that records be kept in such manner that the individual transactions and balances of all organizations and groups are readily available at any given time; this is specifically required in Arizona and Indiana.

Most of the laws require a report of the status of extracurricular funds in a monthly financial report to be presented to the school board. Illinois and Iowa laws require that the report include a statement of financial position. This is also required in Indiana, although not on a monthly basis. Instead the reports are required at the close of each semester and following the close of the school year. Pennsylvania law requires that the financial statement be presented to the board on a quarterly basis instead of monthly.

Audits

All of the laws require annual audits of extracurricular funds or provide for their audit with the regular school audit. The laws vary considerably with respect to designation of the auditing agency. In some states auditing must be done by a certified public accountant, in others by bank examiners or state auditors, and in still others by any qualified accountant. All of the laws indicate that a qualified person must be employed to perform the audit. Copies of the audit are required to be filed with school boards. In Montana it is required that the audit be published in a local newspaper. North Carolina law requires a copy of the audit of the extracurricular funds to be placed on file in the office of the State Board of Education by October 1, following the close of the June 30 fiscal year.

Variations in Laws

Indiana law provides that, if any portion of any function is paid from public funds (the school-lunch program is cited as an example), that portion must

TABLE 1A—TABULAR SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES IN ACCOUNTING FOR
EXTRACURRICULAR FUNDS IN SCHOOLS OF THE VARIOUS STATES

<i>State</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Term Used To Describe Funds</i>	<i>Treasurer—How Selected</i>
1	2	3	4
A. STATES IN WHICH REGULATORY LAWS DESCRIBE ACCOUNTING PROCEDURES			
1. Arizona	1951	Student activity money for common schools, high schools, and junior colleges	Appointed by school board
2. California			
3. Connecticut	1953	School activity funds	Appointed by town board of education—may be a member of the board
4. Illinois	1951	Activity funds—no such funds may be collected without consent of board of education	Appointed by board—no other official may handle funds
5. Indiana	1945	School extracurricular accounts—applies to collection, custody, and distribution of any funds in connection with activities not paid for from public funds	Superintendent, principal, or clerk of district or supt. or prin. may appoint a faculty member—at school opening
6. Iowa	1953	Special activity funds	Board secretary or some bonded employee selected by board
7. Massachusetts	1952 (Amend.)		
8. Montana	1953	Extracurricular funds	A treasurer shall be appointed—no statement about method of selection
9. New Jersey			
10. North Carolina	1948 1950 1951	Extracurricular or special school funds	Appointed by city or county board—one for each school
11. Pennsylvania	1949		Any school employee may be appointed by the board—treasurer must be appointed

(Continued)

<i>Bonding of Treasurer</i>	<i>Depository for Funds</i>	<i>Withdrawals from Funds</i>	<i>Records</i>
5	6	7	8
A. STATES IN WHICH REGULATORY LAWS DESCRIBE ACCOUNTING PROCEDURES			
1. In amount to be determined by school board—cost borne by school district	Bank—unless facilities are not available—then an administrator of school may act as depository	By check signed by treasurer and one other person named by board	Accurate and detailed records of all deposits and expenditures in form prescribed by board. Accts. showing balances of each organization to be kept open to inspection of officers concerned
2.	Bank—approved by local board of trustees		
3. Shall be bonded	Bank	As prescribed by board of trustees	Separate accounts are to be kept
4. Shall be bonded	Bank	By treasurer's check made only on order signed by president and secretary of group, countersigned by faculty adviser	Accounts of receipts and disbursements to be kept—monthly reconciliation of accounts required
5. In amount fixed by superintendent or principal—equal to largest amount handled at any time—bond to be filed and recorded with county recorder	Bank—all funds must be deposited in one account	By check with approval of principal or teacher in charge of school—suggests countersignature	Records showing source of receipts and purpose of all disbursements required—separate accounts of transactions for each organization—records filed with proper officials with last general financial report of yr.—records to be kept 5 yrs.
6. All persons handling money or responsible for administration or accounting to be bonded	Bank—funds can be deposited in name of school treasurer	By check	Records to be kept in duplicate by board secretary or bonded employee
7.	Deposit of funds with town treasurer—separate acct.	Spent by and on order of committee on travel	
8.	Bank is implied since funds withdrawn by check—no specific provision	By check with signature of two persons—usually treasurer and school secretary	Can be in form of control audits for schools having small accounts—larger schools keep separate accts.—all checks to be preserved for audits
9.			
10. All persons author- or handle funds in any way to be bonded in amount determined by board	Bank or trust company authorized to operate—one acct. for all funds	By check—signed by principal and treasurer (Not required where less than \$500 is handled or if board does not require)	Complete records to be kept of all money received and disbursed—one central acct. for all funds of school
11. In amount and with surety or sureties determined by board	Depository approved by board of trustees		Maintain accounting system approved by board of trustees—quarterly financial statement to board—oftener if required

(Continued)

<i>Reports</i>		<i>Audits</i>	<i>Exemptions</i>	<i>Variations</i>
9		10	11	12
A. STATES IN WHICH REGULATORY LAWS DESCRIBE ACCOUNTING PROCEDURES				
1. Copy of monthly deposits and expenditures to be presented to board month'y—copy of audit filed with board		At least once a year by state examiner or qualified accountant hired by board		Revolving fund may be established to meet current expenses of student activities—the amount of revolving fund must be established to school at end of fiscal year
2.		By town auditor		Accounts are considered to be town accounts
3.				
4. Monthly to board—to include statement of position and receipts and disbursements and report of audit		Annually by licensed accountant		Organizations, clubs, and associations and their purposes must be approved by board of trustees—revolving fund permitted—no overdrafts permitted
5. Within 2 wks. after close of school—to show source of receipts and purpose of disbursements in each acct.—file with board—also at end of each semester		Audit as prescribed by state board of accounts	If any portion of any function paid by public funds, that portion to be accounted for as provided by general school law concerning public funds—if function provided by agency outside school, that agency to acct. for funds	No bond or separate accounting required if receipts are estimated at less than \$300 per year—informational pamphlets available—partial list of activities suggested
6. Monthly report of fund accounts to board of trustees		Audit with regular school audit	School-lunch program accounting included only when board of trustees specifies	Deficits can be made up from gen. funds and then repaid—accounting system established by law to be in use by July, '54. No district required to abandon any system now in use if in at least as much detail as new legal system—accts. have been coded—revolving fund is permitted
7.				
8.		Annually by state bank examiner or qualified accountant—if by former cost comes from extra-curricular funds		Copy of audit to be filed with supt. and audit must be published in newspaper
9.				
10. Monthly report to supt. showing status of each fund—any other reports required by law—monthly bank statement and reconciliation		Annually—at time of regular city or county funds audit—as near close of school year as practical—by CPA		Copy of audit to be filed with secretary of administrative unit and state board of educ. not later than Oct. 1, after yr. closing June 30—cost of bond to be budgeted (can be pro-rated among funds to be protected—petty-cash fund permitted)
11. Quarterly financial statement		Audit in same manner as regular accounts of school district		School board may authorize and assign any school employee to serve in any capacity in extracurricular program—any organization can raise funds and hold over balance from yr. to yr. in its own name and under own supervised management as provided by board

(Continued)

TABLE 1B—TABULAR SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES IN ACCOUNTING FOR
EXTRACURRICULAR FUNDS IN SCHOOLS OF THE VARIOUS STATES

<i>State</i>	<i>Date</i>	<i>Term Used To Describe Funds</i>	<i>Treasurer—How Selected</i>
1	2	3	4
B. STATES IN WHICH DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PRESCRIBES UNIFORM POLICY (ON BASIS OF SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS OF SCHOOL CODE OR GENERAL LEGAL AUTHORITY AS STATE EDUCATIONAL AGENCY)			
1. Alabama	1948	Local school funds	Implies principal will serve
2. Delaware		Internal organization funds	Clerk or other person designated by principal
3. Florida	1948	Internal accounts	Responsibility placed on principal for accounting
4. Kansas	1952	Activity funds	
5. Kentucky		Extracurricular funds	May be asst. principal, principal's clerk or secretary, or other person
6. Maine	1949	Pupil activity funds	Principal suggested as custodian
7. Maryland		Extracurricular funds	Treasurer selected by principal—implies could be pupil
8. Minnesota		School auxiliary funds	School district treasurer serves
9. New Hampshire		Special fund activities	A custodian is to be designated
10. New York		Extraclassroom activity funds (pupil funds)	Custodian to be appointed by board of education—student assistants may be used, but responsibility remains with custodian
11. Oregon		Pupil activity funds	A faculty member is appointed and held responsible for supervision of funds
12. South Dakota	(Policy defines funds only—accounting a sole responsibility of the local board of education).		

(Continued)

<i>Bonding of Treasurer</i>	<i>Depository for Funds</i>	<i>Withdrawals from Funds</i>	<i>Records</i>
5	6	7	8
B. STATES IN WHICH DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PRESCRIBES UNIFORM POLICY (ON BASIS OF SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS OF SCHOOL CODE OR GENERAL LEGAL AUTHORITY AS STATE EDUCATIONAL AGENCY)			
1. Principal usually is bonded			Use "latest and soundest" procedures
2. Blanket bond to cover all persons who handle local district money (or extra-curricular funds)	Bank—one account for all funds—bank daily	By check—organization subm'ts form authorizing payment—check to include two signatures (clerk and principal usually)	Control sheet for daily totals and detail sheet for separate activities—each organization to keep own financial record
3. All persons who handle school money bonded—bond from any approved bonding agency	Bank—one account	By check—two signatures required	Adequate and accurate records—uniform accounting on forms prescribed or approved by state dept.
4. Amount equal to amount of money handled in a period—each person handling money to be bonded in amt. equal to largest amt. anticipated at one time during a school year	Bank	By check—supporting voucher required	Each account should operate under a budget as much as possible
5. Amount and type of bond determined by board of education—blanket bond suggested	Bank—through school treasury—one acct. only	Disburse upon receipt of voucher approved by organization secretary or treasurer and faculty sponsor	Complete set of financial records for all organizations (although each organization also responsible for own records)
6. Surety bond recommended	Bank	By check	Monthly reconciliation of bank acct.—statement of conditions of all organization accts. each month
7. Bonding required if "large" sums of money are handled	Bank—prompt deposits—daily if possible	By check—signed by two persons	Monthly reconciliation—system to show cash balance in each fund on any date
8. Bond—no qualifications relieving the surety	Depository designated by board of trustees	By check—upon receipt of proper authorization	Complete accounting system required showing receipts and disbursements—balance books monthly—monthly reconciliation of bank acct.
9.	Bank—receipts to be deposited as soon as possible	By check	Records of receipts, disbursements, and cancelled checks to be kept 6 yrs.
10. Bond type and amount fixed by board	Bank designated by board—deposit promptly	By pre-numbered check countersigned by comptroller (Plan I) or chief faculty adviser (Plan II)	Two separate and independent records of receipts and disbursements to be kept—accounting system to be one that yields greatest possible educ. value to pupils without sacrificing safety of funds
11. Administrative head of school or appointed faculty member shall be bonded			
12.			

(Continued)

<i>Reports</i>	<i>Audits</i>	<i>Exemptions</i>	<i>Variations</i>
9	10	11	12
B. STATES IN WHICH DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PRESCRIBES UNIFORM POLICY (ON BASIS OF SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS OF SCHOOL CODE OR GENERAL LEGAL AUTHORITY AS STATE EDUCATIONAL AGENCY)			
1. Use "latest and soundest" procedures			
2. Monthly bank reconciliation—monthly report of balance to each pupil organization		Separate bank acct. may be established for school cafeteria funds if this will simplify accounting	
3. Periodic reports as prescribed by county board of school trustees	At least one audit annually by person designated by board	Funds coming from projects originated by parent-teacher associations, except school-lunch funds	School-lunch funds under direct control of county board of school trustees—separate bank acct. for school-lunch funds
4. Summary statements of all accounts at end of each calendar month	Annually—preferably by licensed municipal accountant under direction of board		Recommend separate accounts be maintained for state and Federal taxes
5. Regular report to board of trustees (monthly suggested) monthly bank reconciliation	Regular audit	Student exchange, cafeteria, PTA funds, and school-lunch funds have separate accounts	State law allows board of education full authority to control expenditure of funds collected by pupil organizations—board may delegate this authority—rules and regulations of local boards govern funds
6. Monthly report to superintendent	Annually and whenever principalship is changed—public or state accountant or committee approved by board	Cafeteria operations	Petty cash fund permitted—pre-numbering of checks, receipts, and vouchers stressed—forms recommended
7. Annual report status of funds and analysis of disbursements to superintendent	Annually—by CPA in large schools; by faculty audit committee in small schools		Petty cash fund permitted—pre-numbering stressed—recommend budgets for pupil activity organizations
8. Monthly report to board showing bank reconciliation and all acct. balances	Board authorized to have accounts audited—suggest annual audit by professional auditors		Detailed code of activity accounts provided—this is comprehensive—petty cash acct. permitted—complete set of forms provided
9.	At time of school district audit	School-lunch funds	General fund may cover part of expense of program; this expenditure may be repaid from activities income or remain in activities accounts
10. Verification of bank statements at stated intervals—yearly report required	At least annually	Cafeteria funds	Two plans: I, central treasurer and comptroller with independent acct.; II, central treasurer and bookkeeper with independent faculty committee audit—provision for advances and transfer of funds
11.	Annually as required by NWA		Is actually a policy developed in Northwest Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges but is strongly supported by Oregon Department of Education
12.			

be handled as provided by law regarding the handling of public funds; and, if any function is handled by an outside agency, that agency is responsible for the accounting for the funds and they are not to be construed as school extracurricular funds. The Parent-Teacher Association is cited as an example of this sort of agency. Iowa law provides that lunch programs be excluded from extracurricular accounting unless the school board rules specifically that it be included. Arizona statutes include common schools and junior colleges as well as the secondary schools in the group of schools where the accounting for extracurricular funds is regulated. North Carolina laws provide for the establishment of a petty cash fund to cover small expenses arising from time to time, and recommend that accurate and detailed accounting procedures be applied to this fund as well as the main extracurricular fund, with all receipts and disbursements being accounted for. Pennsylvania law provides that any organization of the school that raises funds can hold these funds over to the following school year in its own name and under its own management subject to the supervision of the principal or other employee of the school as designated by the board. Illinois provides that all organizations and groups must be approved by the school board and that the board must further approve their purposes and permit collection of funds.

PATTERN IN STATES WHERE ACCOUNTING IS REGULATED BY POLICIES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

As was stated earlier, there are close parallels between this pattern and the one just presented. Because of this and the fact that Table I presents findings in detail with respect to accounting procedures in each of the states, the following information is presented only to summarize the main common features to be found in the "policy" pattern and some of the striking variations. In general, the pattern is the same as that described by laws except that it is more detailed and indicates some concern on the part of state departments for the prescription of specific forms and procedures for accounting. This summary should be checked against the description of the "law" pattern that has been presented already.

Common Features in the "Policy" Pattern

Letter responses received from officials of departments of education in the states of Delaware, Florida, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New York, and South Dakota place them in the category of states where accounting for extracurricular funds is a matter of regulatory policy established by the state department of education. Of these, New York and Kentucky have the most detailed and specific policies. Responses from officials in the states of Alabama, South Dakota, and Oregon reveal that some progress has been made in the direction of policy formation for their schools,

but not enough to place them in the "policy" pattern category without qualification. In the first nine of the states listed in this category, the following common features are observed in the policies:

1. Each of the statements *defines the funds*. There is greater variety of usage in these definitions than in the "law" pattern. Phrases used include: extracurricular funds, internal organization funds, internal accounts,⁶ activity funds, pupil-activity funds, special auxiliary funds, and special fund activities.

2. All of the departmental policies provide for the selection or appointment of a *central treasurer*, who is held responsible for all extracurricular funds. The Maryland policy statement *implies* that a pupil might serve in the capacity, and the New York statement allows for and recommends the use of pupil assistants by the treasurer; none of the other policies even imply that pupils might participate in his work.

3. *Bonding of the treasurer* is a principle found in all of the policy statements. The statements of policy exhibit about the same variations as the laws in adherence to this principle.

4. All of the policies require use of an *approved depository* for funds.

5. All of the policies adhere to the principle of requiring *uniform procedure for withdrawing and spending funds*. The procedures are essentially the same as those described in the "law" pattern of accounting.

6. Recommendation of a *uniform system for records* is found in each of the policy statements. As is indicated by Table I, the policy statements provide considerably more detailed provisions for records and record forms than do the laws. Several of the policies recommend or require that budget procedures be followed and correlated with records.

7. All of the policies adhere to the principle of requiring *periodic reports of accounts and financial condition*.

8. The principle of *requiring systematic audits* is recognized in all of the policy statements.

Some variations in the pattern should be noted. In Alabama much of the accounting for extracurricular funds is done by city or county custodians of schools' funds under provisions of general school accounting policies. Consequently, the policy statement is not only very recent, but also very brief. Scope of the Alabama policy is further narrowed by the fact that apparently about sixteen per cent of the Alabama schools do not handle any such funds. Massachusetts policy seems to pertain chiefly to funds used in connection with the transportation of pupils and provides that such funds shall be deposited with the treasurer of the town. South Dakota's departmental policy statement is almost entirely confined to a definition of the funds. Since the manner of accounting is made a responsibility of the local school board South Dakota can scarcely be credited with having a policy comparable to other states.

Finally, it should be noted that the policy of the New Hampshire department of education emphasizes the financial procedures to such an extent that the matter of responsibility of the officials doing the accounting is almost entirely ignored.

⁶ This is especially confusing because of its frequent application to the important task of accounting for school-lunch funds; others in the group have connotations that indicate need for use of a standard phrase.

THE "LAISSEZ FAIRE" PATTERN OF ACCOUNTING FOR EXTRACURRICULAR FUNDS

Probably it is incorrect to speak of a "pattern" of accounting in the remaining states⁷ of the forty-eight where, at most, the law or the state department of education provides for local initiative and responsibility for developing some method of accounting that will be satisfactory to the local school board.⁸ There is, however, a pattern of uniformity in allowing freedom. As has been stated previously, there are indications, especially in the recency of development of laws and policies, that this "pattern" will not be in existence much longer. The increasing size of extracurricular funds in the schools, together with the growing awareness of their implications for moral and ethical aspects of the pupils' learning, seem to be dictating a change in the direction of concern for accuracy and security in the management of such funds.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, let us note that this report merely presents details of the current status of extracurricular accounting in the various states. The whole matter of student participation in the acquisition, budgeting, expenditure, and accounting for the funds has not been touched. These aspects of the business side of extracurricular activities and their implications for the practical and theoretical learnings of secondary-school pupils may actually be of considerably greater importance than the specific procedures involved. Study of them must be postponed to the time when the results of this survey can be brought into the more complete study that was mentioned in the beginning of this report.

⁷ Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Mexico, Nevada, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

⁸ The assumption is made here that the three states from which no responses were obtained probably have neither laws nor regulatory policies for accounting.

ELEMENTARY TEACHING POSITIONS

THE United State Civil Service Commission announces an examination for probationary appointment to the position of elementary teacher at a beginning salary of \$3,410 a year. These positions are in the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the Department of the Interior and are located in Indian schools in fourteen states and in the Territory of Alaska. Applicants must not have passed their fiftieth birthday on the date of their filing of application. For complete information or application blanks write to United State Civil Service Commission, Washington 25, D. C.

Parents Should Know What Schools Are Doing

REX C. KIDD

FOR some time now American schools have been maligned and bombarded with criticisms. Perhaps some of the criticisms are warranted; most of them are not. One important reason for the criticisms is the fact that the public is not aware of the colossal problems confronting schools and does not know what they are actually attempting to accomplish.

In an attempt to inform parents and the public in general, the PTA of the Inverness Schools, in their regular October and November meetings, presented a series of two programs. The idea for the programs originated with the PTA program committee composed of parents and teachers, and the programs were presented in the form of a panel discussion by school faculty members.

To serve as a frame of reference for the discussion to follow, the first program began with the presentation of the school's philosophy. This philosophy, evolved over a period of time from a number of committee and faculty meetings, emphasized two points—*first*, the school is concerned with total child development: social, physical, mental, moral, and emotional; *second*, the school is cognizant of the vast mental, physical, social, moral, religious, and emotional differences existing among groups of pupils and attempts to make the school atmosphere such that each pupil develops at his own development rate.

The analysis of a group of achievement test results presented a major problem in attempting to implement the school's philosophy. The test results analyzed were that of a third-grade class, a fifth-grade class, and a seventh-grade class. The test analysis pointed up the fact that, as pupils in regards to academic achievement progress in school, individual differences often markedly increase. The third-grade class, in academic achievement, showed a span of three grades; the fifth-grade, a five-grade span; and the seventh-grade, an eight-grade span. Factors contributing to the broad span of differences were discussed. Inherent differences in intelligence, health, educational background, and varied insecurities of pupils were emphasized as factors most commonly contributing to differences in abilities to achieve. Physical handicaps, diseases, and health habits, including the question of proper diet, sleep habits, and personal cleanliness, were listed in the area of health problems.

Insecurities, as pertaining to child development, were defined as some emotional disturbance within a child such as worry, or extreme timidity and self-

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consciousness, which makes it impossible for him to work and accomplish in accordance with his potential abilities. Economic status of the family, lack of affection on the part of a parent, the relation of the child to brothers and sisters, size and physical appearance, a feeling of inferiority due to failures to succeed, and varied emotional conflicts were listed as some of the things bringing about a feeling of insecurity within the life of a pupil.

The discussion next centered around ways and means of combating the problem of individual differences. Grouping within the group, both at the high-school and elementary-school level, with the use of diversified, different grade-level materials, was offered as one of the most common ways of combating the problem. Selection of varied curricula was pointed out as a way of combating the problem at the high-school level. Also mentioned was the use of varied visual aids as a special help for those with reading disabilities. In concluding the first program, the audience was given an opportunity to quiz the panel. The response was very good: the panel had some challenging questions to answer.

In the second program an attempt was made to show what the school does in the way of social, cultural, physical, and moral development of pupils and what is done in the way of preparing them to earn a living and make a home. Specific things were pointed out in the school's program as contributing to these aspects of pupil development. In the discussion on physical development, certain games taught and routines used were pointed out as contributing not only to stronger and healthier bodies but also to more worthy use of leisure time. Dances, parties, student council participation, assemblies, and other extraclass activities, as well as many aspects of class activities, were presented as factors contributing to social growth. In discussing cultural aspects of the school program, it was brought out that not only aspects of the social studies, language arts, and music programs contributed to cultural development, but also such things as the general atmosphere of the school and the appearance of the school building and school grounds. Such things as daily Bible reading and talks by ministers in assemblies were pointed out as contributing to moral development. But more greatly stressed in this respect were the day-to-day lessons of democratic group living learned in the classroom, on the playground, and on the athletic field. In the area of earning a living and making a home, specific things learned in commercial courses and vocational home economics and agriculture were pointed out as contributing toward this end, and emphasis was given to relating learning to living in every subject matter field. Certain guidance aspects of the school program were discussed.

Again the program was concluded by giving the audience an opportunity to quiz the panel. The programs were well received by a very attentive audience. The community reaction has been highly favorable. As result of these programs, there is a better understanding between school and community.

The Role of the High School in the Selective Recruitment of Teachers

KENNETH D. FRANTZ

THE education of millions of children is being impaired today because of the imbalance between the supply and demand of qualified teachers. It is estimated that each year for the next six years we will have in our elementary schools one million more children than were present the preceding year. Evidence indicates that the high-school enrollment in 1960 will be fifty per cent greater than it was in 1950. Facts of this type have received wide publicity, but scarcely anywhere have definite steps been taken to secure an adequate number of teachers to guide the learning experiences of these additional millions of children. This is evidenced by the fact that in 1953 approximately eight per cent fewer persons were graduated from teacher preparing institutions than were graduated from these same institutions in 1952.

The recognition of the great need for competent teachers caused the writer during the school term of 1951-52 to develop and study in Rice Avenue Union High School, Girard, Pennsylvania, a program designed to demonstrate the contribution that this school could make in the recruitment and selection of teachers. Rice Avenue Union High School is a four-year institution enrolling approximately three hundred pupils in grades nine through twelve. The study¹ was limited to a program of selection and recruitment for the fifty-two pupils in the senior class. However, at a later date a number of juniors participated in the program.

The plan of the study was that of: (1) reviewing the literature in the area of selective recruitment, (2) visiting schools in which programs of selective recruitment have been organized, (3) interviewing educators in an attempt to determine what they believe should be the role of the high school in the selective recruitment of teachers, and (4) organizing in the school a program based upon the information collected through observation, reading, and conferences.

It seems that teachers and counselors frequently are confused over the meaning of selective recruitment. Many appear to believe that selective recruitment is a means for forcing pupils into the teaching profession. Certainly this would not be a desirable means for securing competent teachers for our classrooms.

¹ Frantz, Kenneth, D. *The Role of the High School in Selective Recruitment Through Orientation to the Profession of Teaching*, 1951. Typed report, Teachers College (Columbia University) Library.

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Recruitment as used in this report refers to a program designed to make available accurate information relative to the variety of careers that exist in education and a program for the development of pupil interest in becoming a member of the teaching profession.

Selection refers to: (1) a program designed to assist pupils in becoming acquainted with the important activities of teachers who are working at various grade levels and in differing subject matter areas; and (2) a program that will enable pupils to discover whether they have a real interest in and ability to perform the work of a given teacher.

IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM

The program as herein described for the selective recruitment of teachers was an integral part of the high-school guidance program. In some respects the program of activities for those pupils who wished to become teachers was more elaborate than was the program offered to those pupils who were interested in other vocations. Nevertheless, a definite attempt was made to assist every pupil in his choosing a vocation.

Vocational Survey

Early in the school term each high-school senior was asked to complete a vocational survey questionnaire. This was done in an effort to cause the pupils to begin thinking seriously about a vocational choice and also to provide the administration and teachers with information that would be of assistance to them in their work with these pupils. In completing the vocational survey questionnaire each pupil was asked to answer questions as as:

1. Will you enroll in college after high-school graduation?
2. If you expect to enroll in college, what course do you plan to study?
3. Will you have a definite job to enter after graduation?
4. If you do not have a definite job to enter, what type of work will you seek?

Testing Program

During the first month of the fall school term, a series of ability and interest tests were administered to the seniors. All seniors were given the *Kuder Interest Test*, the *California Test of Mental Maturity—Advanced Series*, and the *Otis Group Intelligence Scale—Advance Examination Forms A and B*. During the course of the school year each member of the senior class had the opportunity to use the guidance facilities of the Pennsylvania Employment Service. Each pupil was rated by the faculty members upon a list of personal qualities such as: (1) general attitude, (2) dependability, (3) initiative, (4) personal appearance, etc.

Conferences

The high-school principal held at least one conference with each high-school senior. At the first conference the principal and pupil reviewed the pupil's scores on intelligence tests, his *Kuder Interest* record, the results of his tests

and conferences given at the Pennsylvania Employment Office, his health record, his personal quality ratings, and his record of achievement. Each pupil was then guided in his selection of a variety of occupations that might be suitable for him in the light of the information gathered relative to his interests, aptitudes, and achievement.

Future Teachers of America Club.

It is quite generally apparent that many of the determined goals of a selective teacher recruitment program could be at least partially achieved through activities of a Future Teachers of America Club. The vocational survey questionnaires were used in determining who might be interested in organizing a club of this type. A study of these questionnaires revealed the fact that only two seniors were certain that they wished to prepare to enter the teaching profession. Another senior stated that she might choose teaching as a career. Two pupils stated that they wished to become guidance counselors. However, neither of these believed that she would prepare to do this type of work in the public schools. They were more inclined toward counseling of a social service nature.

These five girls were invited to the office by the principal for the purpose of discussing with them the possibility of organizing an FTA club. At this first meeting the principal explained the purposes of FTA clubs. It was made very clear that those who become members of FTA do not necessarily have to be certain that they wish to become teachers. It was pointed out that the activities of an FTA club might convince some pupils that teaching is a suitable vocation for them while in other instances these same activities would show other pupils that they would not be happy as members of the teaching profession.

These five girls met with the principal upon six occasions during the next two weeks. They reported that they had discussed very thoroughly the idea of organizing an FTA club in the school and that they were unanimous in their belief that an FTA club would be an organization of great value to the school. It was decided to permit juniors and seniors to become members of the club. During this period of time plans were devised for the installation of the club; a name for the club was chosen; officers were elected; application was made for a charter; and by-laws were approved. The club was officially installed with a membership of five girls, since no other pupils expressed a desire to enter the organization at this time.

Growth of the Club.—The membership of the club increased during each month of the school term. Once each month the club held an induction ceremony for new members. From an original enrollment of five senior girls, the membership was increased to include fourteen seniors and eleven juniors.

Undoubtedly the increase in club membership was due, at least partially, to the publicity given the organization by club members. Several times during the school term, club representatives visited junior and senior home rooms to

describe the purposes and activities of the FTA club and to invite all those who thought they might be interested in becoming teachers to join the club. The FTA librarian displayed in the library materials on the teaching profession. A committee of club members placed upon the bulletin boards materials that described the severe shortage of teachers, notices of scholarships, and materials that described the advantages of teaching for those who are qualified to do this type of work. Descriptions of club activities were published in the school paper and frequently in the local community newspaper. Undoubtedly a number of pupils became members of FTA later in the school term because of conferences they had with teachers or the high-school principal. Whenever the principal was having a conference with a pupil who appeared to possess the characteristics needed by prospective teachers, he would ask the pupil if he had ever considered teaching as a possible career. No pressure was ever exerted to force pupils to choose teaching as a vocation, but it was made certain that each pupil had the opportunity to learn more about the teaching profession. After these conferences many pupils returned to the principal to ask more questions about teaching. Six of these pupils later applied for membership in the club.

Club Meetings.—The schedule of club meetings was planned by the officers of the club with the advice of the club membership and the approval of the high-school principal. At the beginning of the month each club member was given a mimeographed sheet listing the dates of all meetings for the month. Unless other activities of the school caused difficulties, at least four meetings were held each month. Three of the meetings of the month were usually conducted during the school day. One evening meeting was scheduled each month. The best discussions were held during the evening meetings when the time element was not an inhibiting factor.

The meetings of the club varied greatly as to type. At a number of the sessions the entire time was devoted to a discussion of business items. At most meetings a combination of techniques was used to maintain the interest and enthusiasm of club members. Procedures commonly followed were: talks by the sponsor, addresses given by speakers from outside the school, talks by club members who had investigated a topic of concern to the members, films, reports of group or individual activities by club members, panel discussions, discussions of topics by the entire group, planning sessions, and evaluation of club activities.

It was discovered early that the most interesting and valuable programs were those that occurred when the meeting was preceded by much careful planning. The usual practice was that of having the entire group decide what type of meetings they desired to have during a given period of time. Committees would then be given the responsibility for planning the details of the meetings. These committees made preliminary plans and then met with the president and the club sponsor to organize the programs. At least one day before each meet-

ing the sponsor called a conference with the club president to determine if all plans were completed and if any additional guidance needed to be given.

Work with Professional Organizations.—The members of the FTA club were given many opportunities to learn about teachers' professional organizations. The discussions of several meetings centered about these organizations. The pupils discussed the functions, purposes, administration of the organizations. Copies of the journals of PSEA and the NEA were always available to club members. In addition to these vicarious experiences, all club members were given the opportunity to participate in the work of teachers' professional organizations.

Early in October a group of FTA members attended a local branch meeting of PSEA. The meeting was attended by PSEA and NEA workers from various sections of Pennsylvania. It was a workshop session called for the purpose of instructing local branch officers relative to the activities of PSEA, the services that the state organization has to offer local branches, and suggested activities for local branches. The club members heard short talks given by the president of a teachers college, the dean of instruction of a teachers college, the county superintendent of schools of Erie County, a former president of NEA, and the PSEA assistant executive secretary. A number of FTA members attended a PSEA meeting held in the city of Erie during the month of October. This meeting was attended by more than two thousand teachers from Pennsylvania. During the morning the FTA group attended a workshop session of FTA members representing the five counties of northwestern Pennsylvania. At this session, the group helped elect FTA officers for the Northwest District, discussed desirable activities for FTA clubs, and listened to an address given by a former state president of PSEA. At the afternoon session, the FTA members attended the general assembly of the PSEA convention. At this meeting, they heard a very inspiring address by a nationally famous speaker. They also had the opportunity to observe how the business affairs of PSEA are conducted at the district level.

During the month of January the local branch of the Erie County PSEA held a meeting at Rice Avenue Union High School. Almost all members of the FTA club attended this meeting. A committee of FTA members served as ushers. Another committee was responsible for serving refreshments to the teachers. Here again these high-school pupils were privileged to hear an excellent address given by another president of one of Pennsylvania's State Teachers Colleges. The title of his address was "Is Teaching Really a Profession?" Also in attendance at this meeting were two visiting educators from Germany. The FTA members were given the opportunity to meet these educators and to discuss with them the type of educational program that exists in Germany.

The experiences mentioned above are only a sample of the many opportunities that FTA members had to meet with groups of teachers in an attempt to develop a clearer concept of this aspect of a teacher's life. Before attending each of these sessions, at least one FTA meeting was devoted to a discussion of the nature of the experience the pupils were about to enjoy and the important events that should be closely observed. Following the attendance at these conventions, the FTA members summarized their experiences orally and in writing.

Visiting Schools.—Each FTA member was given the opportunity to spend several days visiting elementary schools. The club members suggested that this would be a valuable activity for them. They wished to learn about the work of teachers at all grade levels. The pupils were of the opinion that a visit to the elementary schools would permit them to observe the work of elementary-school teachers from a perspective which they were unable to have when they were pupils in the lower grades. Most of the club members thought that an experience of this type would assist them in selecting the grade level at which they would like to teach in later years.

The group with the guidance of the club sponsor made extensive plans for the visits to the elementary schools. For their first visit they selected the two schools that they had attended when they were in the lower grades. Several club meetings were spent in discussing those features about the school that should be observed closely. They decided that their first visit should be for one-half day.

They chose to visit classes during the morning session so that it would be possible for them to each lunch with the teachers whom the pupils observed. They decided to follow this procedure so that during the lunch hour they could discuss with the teachers the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in the elementary school. They also believed that this would provide an opportunity for them to question the teachers about observations made within the classroom.

The club sponsor met with the faculty and principals of the schools that FTA members expected to visit. The sponsor attempted to describe the nature of the FTA club and the reasons the pupils had in mind for wishing to visit elementary schools. Time was spent in discussing the types of experiences that might prove of most value to the FTA members. It was decided that the first few visits should be only for purposes of observation. Later, if any club members wished to assist teachers in the actual process of teaching, arrangements would be made for them to do so.

The number of visits to elementary schools and the nature of these visits varied a great deal among the pupils. Some pupils visited the elementary schools only once during the year. Other pupils visited the schools six or more times. Two boys who were interested in elementary-school administration worked with elementary-school principals upon a number of mornings and

then remained at the school during the noon hour to assist with the supervision of the playground. The nature of the visits varied with the needs, abilities, and interests of the pupils. The visits to elementary schools were discussed thoroughly at FTA meetings. Some of the best group discussions of the year resulted from these visits. It was amazing to discover how interested the pupils were in the work of these schools. Members of the group would ask questions of those who had been observing classes. They attempted to discover why some classrooms were dull and monotonous while in other rooms the atmosphere was pleasant, interesting, and permeated with enthusiasm for the work being done. They wondered why elementary-school pupils appear to be much more eager to learn than are high-school pupils. Their observation of pupils during the time that devotional exercises were being conducted caused them to believe that elementary-school children show more respect for the flag and the Bible than do high-school pupils. After visiting a number of special classes in a city school system, the club members were vehement in stating their belief that it is unfair that so many children in special classes must be given instruction by teachers who had had such a small amount of preparation for doing this type of work.

Meetings with Other Clubs.—Several times during the year meetings were held in conjunction with other FTA clubs. These meetings were planned so that it would be possible for members of each club to exchange ideas relative to types of projects and activities that had been found to be of interest to FTA members.

The FTA members spent an entire day in a workshop session participating with FTA members from colleges and high schools from five counties in northwestern Pennsylvania. The purposes of this meeting were to assist high schools in the organization of FTA clubs and to exchange ideas so that groups that are already organized might function more effectively. The entire group of more than one hundred representatives convened on a Saturday morning. The purposes of the meeting were first explained to the members and then the representatives were divided into eight discussion groups. Leaders had previously been appointed for each group. The groups met until late in the afternoon when they were called together for reports of small group discussions. The meeting closed following an address by a Pennsylvania State Senator who is a member of the State Education Committee.

Visits to Colleges.—The members of the club were in complete agreement in their belief they should visit one or more colleges. Only a few of the pupils had ever visited a college campus. The club members knew very little about tuition charges and even less about courses studied by those who are preparing to become teachers.

Before making any visits to colleges, the group decided that it would be necessary to learn more about various types of institutions of higher learning.

The club secretary sent to teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities for college catalogs. The discussions of several meetings centered about a study of these catalogs. The differences in organization, the costs of attendance, the types of curricula, and the purposes of the different types of institutions were discussed.

FTA members visited three institutions of higher learning. They visited a teachers college, a small liberal arts college, and a large university. Since approximately the same type of preparations were made for each visit, only one description of these will be included in this report.

A committee was appointed to make the necessary arrangements to the teachers college. The committee first met with the high-school principal for the purpose of determining when it might be possible to visit the college. After this arrangement was completed, the committee contacted the college president and later the president of the college FTA chapter for the purpose of gaining permission to make the visit and of making detailed plans for the time that club members would be on campus.

Several days before the time set for the trip to the college, a special meeting was called for all club members and any other seniors who might be interested in making the trip with the FTA. Each FTA member had previously received from the teachers college a copy of the institution's catalog. At this meeting a panel of pupils discussed with the entire group the history of the teachers college. They discussed how the institution originated as an academy in 1857, became a normal school in 1861, and, finally, became a teachers college in 1926. They discussed the fact that this college is a single purpose institution designed only for the preparation of teachers. They discussed the curriculum of the college, describing courses for early childhood education, intermediate education, rural-elementary education, secondary education, and the special field of the college art education. They talked about the costs of attending and the admission policies of the institution. Finally, they discussed the relationships that exist among this college and the other teachers colleges in Pennsylvania. The committee had prepared for each pupil a sheet that contained a map showing the location of each teachers college in the state.

The FTA members and other seniors who were interested in taking the trip arrived at the teachers college on the morning of November 28. At the college they were met by a committee of college FTA members. The group was first taken to the college auditorium where they enjoyed an excellent assembly program. After eating lunch in the college dining room, the club members were divided into small groups for the purposes of viewing the campus and observing classes. Following this, the club members made a complete tour of the campus and, after observing several college classes, all pupils assembled in the administration building. The dean of instruction and the president of

the college talked to the group about life in a college, admission requirements, and procedures that must be followed in making application for admission.

After each college visit the next meeting of the FTA club was devoted to a discussion of the experience. During these discussions it was often possible to answer many of the questions that were not answered while the pupils were on campus. The pupils appeared to enjoy this opportunity to review and generalize from their experience.

Films.—Films were frequently used by the club, both as a means for learning more about teaching and for developing those characteristics that are needed by good teachers. The club members were unable to locate many films that are especially designed for youth who want to learn more about teaching. Several films were located, however, that illustrated the importance of the teaching profession and described the work of the modern teacher. Films designed for the purpose of assisting pupils to improve their personal qualities were easier to locate. Some excellent films related to problems of social adjustment, personality development, and the improvement of study habits were used to good advantage by the FTA group.

Group Discussions.—At many club meetings the time was spent primarily in group discussion of topics related to the teaching profession. Many of the topics that were discussed have already been mentioned. The following are additional topics that club members selected for discussion:

1. What Do Communities Expect of Teachers?
2. Salaries of Teachers
3. Teacher Retirement
4. Teacher Tenure
5. Teacher Supply and Demand
6. The Social Status of Teachers
7. Code of Ethics for Teachers
8. Personal Qualities of Good Teachers
9. The Importance of Teaching
10. How Teachers Secure Positions

All topics for discussion were selected by the club members. Many of the problems studied were suggested to the pupils by direct experiences they had while working as assistants to teachers. Some of the problems were discovered through reading or through observation of films. Some problems were suggested by the club sponsor or by speakers who visited the club. In every instance the club members co-operatively selected the topics after they felt a need to know more about a particular subject.

Planning Experiences for the Individual.—It was evident that group experiences would not meet the individual needs of all club members. Through observation of the pupils during club meetings, through conferences with the pupils, and through discussions of the needs of pupils with faculty members, it became readily apparent that each FTA member had needs and problems that

were unique to him as an individual. The FTA sponsor recognized that special activities would have to be planned for FTA members if the club programs were to meet the needs of, and develop to the maximum, the potentialities of each pupil.

Special experiences for club members were planned during conferences with the pupil. Sometimes the pupil met with the club sponsor while at other times he met with one of the faculty members for the purpose of planning special experiences. The conferences were designed to permit the pupil to share in the planning of experiences.

Assistants to Teachers.—Many unique problems of individual pupils were solved by having the pupils serve as assistants to one or more high-school teachers. Each FTA member worked as an assistant to one or more high-school teachers. Serving as assistants also helped in achieving another objective which was that of acquainting the pupils with many of the activities of teachers. It was believed that this type of experience would enable the pupil to become better acquainted with aspects of a teacher's work that ordinarily would not be viewed through class observation alone.

The pupils, teachers, and the club sponsor co-operatively planned experiences for the pupil assistant. It was agreed by all persons involved that these experiences should assist the pupil to learn about the many important activities of a given teacher rather than to teach the pupil how to do well any one particular job. All teachers have some routine chores to perform. It was agreed that the pupils should learn about these jobs, but that no teachers' assistant should be exploited so as to eliminate what might be a disagreeable task for the teacher.

Most pupils served as assistants to more than one teacher during the school term. After serving as assistant to a given teacher for six or more weeks, the pupils might choose to work with another teacher for a time. The change enabled the pupil to become acquainted with the work of teachers in a variety of subject matter areas.

Listing all the activities of the pupils while assisting teachers would be comparable to listing all the tasks performed by a teacher. This is as it should be because it was the purpose of the project to acquaint the pupils with all of the teachers' duties. In reporting their experiences, the activities mentioned most frequently were items such as: (a) arranging bulletin boards; (b) regulating heat, light, and ventilation; (c) assisting teachers in marking papers; (d) helping pupils during supervised study periods; (e) assisting the teacher in averaging grades; (f) keeping records of attendance; (g) assisting the teacher with lesson plans; (h) assisting with the preparation of curriculum materials; (i) averaging grades for report cards; (j) leading devotional exercises; (k) decorating the room for special occasions or holidays; (l) assisting pupils during home-room guidance periods; (m) assisting in the preparation

of assembly programs; (n) doing actual teaching during part of a class period but under the supervision of the teacher.

Assistants to teachers frequently served as assistants to substitute teachers. When a substitute teacher was employed for a day because the regular teacher was absent, the teacher's assistant would be assigned to work with the substitute during most of the day. This experience not only was of value to the assistant, but it also enabled the substitute teacher to do her work more effectively.

Merit Points.—Experiences planned for the earning of merit points were a means for adjusting the recruitment program to meet individual needs of pupils. A merit point was earned for each hour's work spent on an FTA project. The records show that club members earned a total of eight hundred seventy merit points. One pupil, who was a charter member of the club, spent a total of one hundred sixty-seven and one-half hours working upon projects related to the teaching profession.

The pupils participated in a great variety of activities in the process of earning merit points. Several pupils who had had very little experience working with small children chose to gain experience of this type by doing baby sitting. Two boys organized a group of seventh- and eighth-grade boys who met in the high-school gymnasium for participation in physical education activities. One girl assumed the responsibility for learning about scholarships offered by colleges. She made the information available to all high-school pupils. Many pupils taught in Sabbath schools. Two girls who were interested in teaching music directed a junior choir in one of the local churches. Several pupils worked with Boy Scout and Girl Scout groups in the community. Two pupils who were interested in guidance work were responsible for cataloging guidance materials and for displaying guidance posters and announcements on bulletin boards.

Faculty Co-operation in Selective Recruitment.—A factor of great importance in the development of a program of selective recruitment is the relationship that exists among teachers and administrators. The establishment of an *esprit de corps* is necessary (a) to secure complete co-operation of the faculty in the program and (b) to produce a happy group of enthusiastic teachers whose mien is evidence to high-school pupils that it is a pleasure to be a member of the teaching profession. An attempt was made to improve the *esprit de corps* through democratic leadership on the part of the principal. Starting with the first faculty meeting in September, the principal attempted to guide the faculty toward the establishment of a democratic group.

The principal believed that one of the best ways to improve teacher morale was that of assisting every teacher to grow professionally. An attempt was made to place each teacher in the position where he could do his best work and, thereby, gain the greatest possible satisfaction. To do this it was nec-

sary for the principal to know each teacher individually. A study was made of the record of each teacher's experience and training. Much information about faculty members' interests and abilities was gathered through observation and casual conversation. Conferences with teachers were extremely valuable in assisting the principal better to know and understand the faculty as individuals. The knowledge gained in this manner was invaluable in assisting the principal to place his teachers where they gain the greatest satisfaction from their work.

The teachers discussed selective recruitment at many faculty meetings. The teachers discussed the operation of the FTA club. They suggested activities and projects that they thought would be of value to FTA members. The faculty discussed the kinds of activities that they thought would be appropriate for pupils who were serving as assistants to teachers. Upon many occasions they discussed the activities that each teacher might promote during the home-room period and in academic classes.

As the program of selective recruitment was put into operation, there was continuous evaluation of all activities. At faculty meetings the teachers reported upon the reactions of pupils to the various aspects of the program. Sometimes an entire meeting would be devoted to group planning of activities that might assist a pupil in developing those qualities that are needed by a good teacher.

Many worth-while plans for selective recruitment evolved from conferences with small groups of teachers. For example, the principal would meet with the teachers of English. At these meetings special attention would be given to the role of the teacher of English in the selective recruitment of teachers. Many very excellent discussions of selective recruitment were conducted much more informally during the lunch hour or in the principal's office after a basketball game or other school function.

The faculty participated in a variety of activities for the selective recruitment of teachers. They held conferences with pupils, supervised assistants, gave guidance to pupils working for merit points, and explained the need for more and better teachers to citizens of the community. Some very excellent experiences for prospective teachers were implemented by faculty members who correlated the program of selective recruitment with the work that was being done in academic classes. Much of the success of the program of selective recruitment can be attributed to the excellent co-operation on the part of every faculty member. Without their enthusiastic participation the program would have been decidedly limited.

Working with Parents.—Letters to parents served as one means of supplying them with information about their children. A letter describing the school's testing program was sent to the home of each pupil. Profiles of pupils' test scores, with interpretations, were enclosed with the communications. Upon several occasions during the year, parents were sent letters that described the

pupil's general record of achievement. Parents were invited to come to the school to discuss further the pupil's achievement.

The principal had conferences with most of the parents of FTA members. At these conferences the pupil's record was reviewed for the parent and the pupil's vocational choice was discussed. Plans were made whereby a greater amount of co-operation could be achieved between the home and the school.

EVALUATION

Number of Prospective Teachers Recruited.—At the close of the school term during which this program of selective recruitment was implemented, twenty per cent of the pupils in the graduating class applied for admission to teacher preparing institutions. During the previous decade the percentage of pupils applying for admission to colleges of all types was seldom higher than ten per cent. The number of pupils applying for admission to teacher preparing institutions this year was greater than the total number of such applicants during the previous five years.

It is interesting to study the pupil choices of the areas of education in which they desired to teach. As pupils became members of the FTA Club, the sponsor asked each pupil to name the grade level at which he believed he would enjoy teaching. Almost ninety per cent of the club members thought they would be interested in secondary education. Before the end of the school term many pupils made a change in the choice of grade level or choice of subject area in which they wished to teach. The applications for admission to college indicated that five pupils wished to study in secondary education and five pupils wished to major in elementary education.

The pupils attempted to make their choices of grade level and subject area on the basis of interest and aptitude. The experiences the pupils had in reading about teaching, observing teachers, working with children, and conferring with workers in the various areas of education, appeared to affect their final selection of a major area of specialization. After spending a period of time working in the elementary schools, one girl made the following statement to the club adviser, "Before working in the elementary school I wanted to become a history teacher in high school. This experience has convinced me that it would be much more desirable to teach small children."

Quality of Prospective Teachers Recruited.—It is the opinion of the writer that the pupils who applied for admission to teacher preparing institutions were persons of exceptionally high quality. During interviews with principals, counselors, and college instructors, it was frequently mentioned that prospective teachers should possess good health; that they should be neat in appearance; that they should have good achievement records; and that they should possess above average intelligence. It would be extremely dangerous to say that any prospective teacher must possess each of these qualities to a specified degree.

The good teacher may have weaknesses in certain characteristics, but he may compensate for these by building upon his strength in other areas. The prospective teachers described in this study, however, appeared to possess to a high degree those qualities usually considered necessary for one who desires to become a teacher.

The high-school faculty rated each of the prospective teachers on a list of personal qualities such as health, friendliness, character, sense of humor, leadership, neatness, intellectual curiosity, effort, enthusiasm, punctuality, initiative. Only one prospective teacher received a rating of average in any one quality. The average rating for all pupils upon all qualities was between good and excellent.

The prospective teachers were active in many co-curricular activities. Eight of the ten prospective teachers were members of musical organizations; four were members of the debate team; eight persons participated in literary activities such as writing for the school newspaper or the yearbook; five pupils participated in class plays; three pupils served on the student council at least once during their high-school careers; two boys earned letters playing football; and every prospective teacher belonged to several school clubs.

The prospective teachers were above average in intelligence. The lowest intelligence quotient recorded for any prospective teacher on the *Otis Intelligence test* was one hundred nine. The highest I.Q. recorded was one hundred thirty-three. The median I.Q. for the prospective teachers on this test was approximately one hundred twenty-one. On the *California Test of Mental Maturity*, the lowest percentile rank on the total score was seventy. The highest total score was at the ninety-fifth percentile. The median percentile rank for the group on the total score was approximately ninety.

Evidence indicates that the prospective teachers established excellent achievement records. The lowest total score on the *Iowa Test of Educational Development* was at the fifty-fifth percentile. Three pupils made total scores above the ninety-fifth percentile. The median percentile rank for the prospective teachers was approximately eighty-five. The scholarship rank of these pupils also indicates excellent achievements. Only two persons ranked in the lower one half of their class. Five pupils were in the upper one fifth of their class. The highest scholarship average of the graduating class was attained by a prospective teacher.

Pupil Evaluation.—The club sponsor with the assistance of a committee devised a questionnaire for the purpose of evaluating the selective recruitment program. The last question on this evaluation sheet was: "What, if anything, has the FTA program contributed to your educational background?" The quotations given below serve to illustrate the general reactions that pupils had to FTA at the close of the school term:

FTA experiences have shown me that teaching isn't all cut and dry, straight-from-the-book stuff. There is more to teaching than the average person thinks. I don't know it all—probably never will—but there seems to be an awful lot of psychology in teaching a group of young students. Teaching can be fun, encouraging, inspirational, and helpful both to the teacher and the student. If it isn't, then the person should not choose teaching. He'll only make himself and his students miserable.

FTA experiences have made me decide definitely on one field, and I am sincerely glad. Before, I was very undecided as to which vocation I should choose. Now I know what I want to do and I think I will be happy in that field.

* * *

The FTA has been one of the best guidance programs I have seen. It gave us an outline not only of teaching but also of other vocations. It has made us think of our future.

* * *

FTA and the teachers associated with it have helped me to see that, if there is a will to be a teacher, there is a way. I am very glad that I was able to join FTA in the fall because without it I would probably not be on my way to college now. I appreciate every thing that was done to help me get started on my profession. I do wish that there had been such a club in existence last year so that I could have started on my way sooner.

* * *

FTA has given me a different outlook on life. It gave me many things to think about. Mostly, I believe, FTA helped me to plan my future. As I am a senior, planning my career is the most important thing to me now.

* * *

FTA has given me a much greater knowledge of teaching and a sureness that I have entered the right profession. It has also given me a pride in the profession. FTA has developed my ability to lead a group. I now enjoy group work.

FTA certainly has been a club in which you couldn't help but learn many valuable things. It has shown how important the teaching profession is. It has certainly increased my respect for the profession. It has made me realize more fully the problems of the teacher as well as the student.

FTA has shown me the many different types of work in the teaching field. I have also learned how teachers are organized. To those who have chosen teaching, FTA would be invaluable because it brings in and shows most of the important things that one should know about teaching before he decides on teaching definitely.

FTA is a wonderful club. I am sorry that others who are not going to be teachers could not have had similar experiences in the field they have chosen. It would certainly be beneficial and would eliminate many wrong choices.

CONCLUSION

The shortage of qualified teachers is extremely acute. Unless definite efforts are made to recruit qualified persons into the teaching profession, millions of children will not receive the type of educational experiences that are needed by the citizens of our democratic society. The results of this program of selective recruitment would seem to indicate that a sufficient number of qualified persons can be recruited into the teaching profession if each teacher is willing to assume his share of the responsibility.

The Value of Understanding the Community

J. RUSSELL MORRIS

THERE is general agreement among educators of teachers that a knowledge of the community and the environment in which children live is an essential for their teacher. Since such knowledge is not acquired through sporadic visits and incidental interviews, it is considered very desirable that all teachers make thorough, systematic study of the communities in which they teach. One does not have to stretch his imagination to note the several reasons why every teacher should study the community in which he teaches. In the first place, the students attending the school are likely to spend a major portion of their lives in the community in which they were born. It is then the responsibility of the school to give them an appreciative understanding of that particular environment. Certainly, there is as much importance associated with this study as that of understanding life on the Gobi Desert or the habits of the Swiss Mountaineers or the culture of Australia. In the second place, the school has taken over many of the functions which were formerly the responsibilities of the home and the community. These functions, however, cannot be adequately performed without intelligent community support and co-operation.

Third, there is a significant trend in education to draw heavily upon the community for curriculum and teaching materials. Education is thus extended far beyond the classroom, so that a teacher who lacks an adequate understanding of community problems is at a distinct disadvantage. No teacher should be guilty of this mistake. In the fourth place, the belief is growing that the school and its children have a responsibility for the improvement of the local community. If this point of view is accepted, then the school must provide experiences that make the pupils aware of community problems and guide them in formulating programs for community improvement; both of these responsibilities clearly belong to the teacher.

Lastly, a community survey is an excellent educational venture for both the teacher and the pupil inasmuch as it makes for expanded growth. However, tabulation is not enough because the survey becomes more meaningful to the surveyors as the results are interpreted and applied to the solution of community problems.

There are certain accepted techniques for making a survey that should be applied when making a community survey. These are: (1) the interview; (2)

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the study of historical remains, records, documents, newspapers, or similar source material; (3) direct observations; (4) mapping, including such things as geographical points, natural resources, homes of the pupils, and other important factors; (5) photography, since pictures furnish excellent motivation as well as a basis for further investigation and study; and (6) the use of the questionnaire.

Usually community studies are based on and include the following: (1) the historical background, (2) the physical aspects of the environment, (3) the economic life of the people of the community, (4) the cultural elements present, (5) community recreation and its possible development, (6) the homes in which the pupils live, (7) the men and women of achievement who have lived or now live in this community, (8) the ethological composition (race-creed) of the population, and (9) the health of the community—that is, the "climate" of health enjoyed by the community.

This has been an attempt to indicate even to the average skeptic educator and classroom teacher the importance of understanding the community in which they live and teach. All too frequently we are prone to overlook or neglect the fact that a teacher's success inside and outside of the classroom depends directly upon his rapport and understanding of the community of which he is a vital part. If we are to carry out the role of the school successfully as it relates to present-day social and economic problems, it behooves us to become aware of our community responsibilities as teachers and molders of American youth.

RESEARCH FELLOWSHIP IN PACIFIC SCIENCE

THE University of Hawaii has announced a \$4,000 research fellowship in the social or biological sciences for 1954-55. Applicants are expected to have completed at least two years of graduate study in his field of specialization and to submit a detailed plan for original research in some aspect of Pacific Islands study, preferably to be carried out in the field. Applications should be received by May 1, 1954. Forms for application are available from Dean of Faculties, University of Hawaii, Honolulu 14, Hawaii.

The Book Column

Professional Books

CALLAHAN, J. W. *Television in School, College, and Community*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 357 pp. \$4.75. Here is the first book in the field to deal exclusively with educational television and to picture at work the people who are fashioning TV-techniques that can teach as well as entertain. In their closed-circuit studios, at commercial outlets, or in their own noncommercial station, these leaders become the reader's close associates as the author quotes them at length on their writing-production techniques and gives first-hand information on their programming. An extensive bibliography gives sources for continuously up-to-date information.

A dozen useful production scripts, widely varied in content and form, add to the practical value of the book. Among them are "Exploring Space" from the California Academy of Sciences, "Hands at Work" from the Rochester Memorial Art Gallery, "Greek Tragedy" from the University of North Carolina, and telecourses "Man in His World-Human Behavior" and "Understanding the Child" from the University of Michigan. From the public schools come Seattle's telecast of a first-grade reading lesson, Baltimore's "Traveling with Tunes," Philadelphia's "How's Your Social I.Q.?" and St. Louis' "I Didn't Know the Gun Was Loaded."

This book shows how mayors, chambers of commerce, librarians, church groups, directors of scientific and cultural institutions, health and safety organizations, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, PTA, YMCA, YWCA, local and national clubs are putting educational television into the service of the community. "What the American public does with this new kind of television," states the author, "depends upon the time taken to consider the ways it may be put to the service of particular communities and to American education as a whole. The aim is to guide you in this exploration so that you may see with the least effort and loss of time what is going on in other communities, to the end that all may profit from each other's experiences and lend needed momentum to a new kind of expansion on America's frontier of creative thinking and expression."

COOPER, SHIRLEY, and FITZWATER, C. O. *County School Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1954. 603 pp. \$5.00. Although the county superintendency is as firmly embedded in the American public education system as the city superintendency, educational literature has devoted almost no attention either to research or to any worth-while discussion of principles and procedures in this field. Yet there have been widespread efforts in recent years to improve educational opportunities in rural areas, and people in many states are working toward strengthening their county school administration. This is the first full work on school administration at the county and intermediate district level—one of the most neglected aspects of American education. Prepared by two of the nation's outstanding experts in school administration, it will prove indispensable to everyone engaged in county and rural school administration and supervision, members of state education boards and departments, adult education leaders, agricultural extension workers, educational workshops, and college teachers of courses in rural education and rural administration.

The importance of the present volume, by two acknowledged authorities in the field of rural school administration, will, therefore, be recognized. No other volume deals primarily with this phase of American education. Nor does any other volume treat the subject from the vantage-point of the socio-economic framework within which

it functions. This book provides a detailed analysis and description of the structure, functions, and operating procedures of American county school administration, with special attention to the socio-economic setting. Special emphasis is given to the organization, structure, and service functions of intermediate units of school administration. The entire discussion stresses the principles and practices of democratic educational leadership. The book is largely based on actual field observations. Important practices are described in simple, narrative style. Much factual information is graphically presented—by charts, maps, and tables. A valuable selected and annotated bibliography is provided. The content of the book is organized into eighteen chapters. These titles, in order, are: The American County, County Educational Needs, Unity in Democratic Control, The Intermediate District of School Administration, The County Superintendent of Schools, The County Unit of School Administration, Educational Leadership Through the County Superintendent's Office, Providing Essential Education Services Through the Intermediate Administrative District, The Professional Staff of the County Superintendent's Office, Relationship of County Administrative Office Staff Members to Personnel in Local Schools, The Function of the County Superintendent with Boards of Education, The Functions of the County Superintendent with Instructional Personnel, Relations with the Public, Co-ordinating the Work of the School with Other Educational Agencies and Organizations, Personnel Accounting, School Business Management, Pupil Transportation, and Evaluation and Adjustment.

DARLING, EDWARD. *How We Fought for Our Schools*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co. 1953. 255 pp. \$3. This is the story of an American community which awoke one morning to discover that its public school system was in great danger—not from enemy bombs or flood or fire, but because a small, vocal, strongly organized minority wanted to set the clock back a couple of generations. The members of this pressure group had many different reasons for their attack; but they all agreed on one thing—public education in Oak Glen was too expensive.

This narrative is in the form of fiction, and with a few exceptions the characters are fictional. But all facts are true, and their counterparts have been seen in one community after another right across the country. Oak Glen is not Pasadena, nor Scarsdale, nor Los Angeles, Houston, Battle Creek, Port Washington, Denver, nor any other American community where controversies over the public schools have occurred within recent months. Yet the events in Oak Glen actually occurred . . .

This is a story of what has happened and is happening today. It has significance for all Americans because it makes us re-examine our basic values in education and asks us to decide again whether we wish to continue the democratic tradition—for it is we ourselves, the citizens, who will decide. This has been written in collaboration with members of the staff of the Center for Field Studies, Harvard Graduate School of Education, and the author is a former teacher himself.

INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF ASSISTANT MASTERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *The Teaching of Classics*. New York 22: Cambridge Univ. Press. 1954. 256 pp. \$2.50. This is a handbook dealing with the teaching of classics at the high-school level. While written with the British schools in mind, it is a book that, in most cases, is equally applicable to the secondary schools in the United States. The main subjects covered are: Junior and Middle School Latin; Greek, the early years; teaching methods, life, and literature; classics in the secondary modern school; examinations; and teaching aids. Included in the appendix are: pronunciation of Latin and of Greek words, examination requirements for entry to the universities and professions, bibliography, and classical societies and courses.

LITTLE, WILSON, and CHAPMAN, A. L. *Developmental Guidance in Secondary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 336 pp. \$4.50. This book is devoted almost exclusively to an understanding of pupils' problems and ways in which the schools can help youth to make a satisfactory adjustment when guidance is conceived as an integral part of the total educational program. Emphasis is shifted from the form and structure of a guidance program, which is usually excessively itemized and briefly described, to the subject of boys and girls who are in the process of growing up in a complex world.

This work is designed for use as a textbook in upper division and graduate courses as well as by people on the job in secondary schools. The authors establish the problems of most concern to youth in junior and senior high school as determined by long-term investigation; these problems are presented and explained psychologically and socially, and procedures are suggested by which guidance services may be harmonized with pupils' needs. Full chapter treatment is given to these special topics: "Youth's Social Problems"; "Family Relations Problems of Youth"; "Problems in the Use of Time"; "Youth Looks to the Future"; "Youth's Personality Problems"; "Youth, Part-Time Jobs, and Money"; and "Youth's Health Problems." Numerous devices for identifying individual pupils' problems, for gauging pupils' attitudes, for effective group guidance, and for other activities are included.

MURSELL, J. L. *Successful Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 337 pp. \$4.25. The purpose of this book is to set forth a method of teaching that will result in effective and genuine mastery of the subject by the pupil. Extensive clarification, condensation, and modernization characterize this new second edition, while fundamental organization and point of view remain the same. To achieve the book's purpose the concept of meaningful learning is developed; and, from this, six working principles, comprising a bridge between psychology and the classroom, are derived: context, focalization, socialization, individualization, sequence, and evaluation. Each principle is discussed and explained in the light of its psychological background, after which practical applications to teaching situations on different levels of effectiveness are developed by means of numerous instances of classroom practice. Material is based on an electric psychology of learning and presents selected material particularly understandable and useful to the teacher. Illustrative and application material is grouped around the book's conceptual framework. Specific, definite, and coming down to cases on how to do a good job of teaching, the work avoids far-flung theories, talks practical sense, and at the same time gives a clear-cut psychological orientation.

Important studies on the learning process, on group dynamics, and on motivation have been drawn upon in bringing selected material up to date. New illustrative material has been added, a number of passages rewritten, material that has lost significance has been deleted, and teaching aids have been improved. The total length has been reduced slightly.

O'DALY, E. C. *Dear Parents*. New York 11: Oceana Publications. 1953. 127 pp. \$2.50. To the parent who wants her child to excel, the modern school may be frightening. Every day spent visiting the zoo, listening to stories, acting out little plays, having fun with clay and finger paints seems to be a day wasted. "When is she going to learn to read?" "Why, when I was her age, I was reading the encyclopedia!" Well, writes the author, who is now a school principal, learning goes on at an uneven rate. Formal reading and instruction are delayed until teachers are sure the children are ready to learn. First they play together, learn to get along with each other, begin to feel at home in the classroom and at ease with

their teacher. When the proper time comes, they learn without strain and tears. The first grade is no longer a grim battlefield—a daily struggle with alphabet, flash cards, and the first reader. The author goes on to explain the complementary roles played by school and home in the development of our children.

ROBINSON, K. F. *Teaching Speech in the Secondary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co. 1954. 446 pp. \$4.25. The purpose of this book is to give helpful information, methods, suggestions, and guidance to those teachers in training and in service who desire to teach speech in secondary schools. The organization of the book rests upon the basic factors affecting the teaching job. These factors, the methods, and the materials suggested are largely the result of the experience and careful observation of the author. He has spent his professional life as a teacher of speech in the high school, the college, and the university. He supervises the training of teachers of speech for secondary schools, in particular, and works with them constantly in solving their problems. Therefore, he has tried to provide a practical treatment of all matters in this publication. Because of this emphasis, he feels it will be of greater benefit to the teacher.

Part I analyzes systematically the factors affecting speech instruction, explains how to deal with them, and provides a practical foundation for teaching speech. Part II treats the problems of classroom instruction in fundamentals and basic speech skills. This second edition strengthens and adds to basic approaches to instruction, especially, planning daily work, and incorporates new material in the other chapters. Part III discusses directing speech activities and contests as vehicles of speech training in the classroom or as co-curricular experiences outside class in a school program.

The author makes no attempt to include *all* methods which may be employed in handling the problems of teaching speech in the secondary school. He does not contend that *his* procedures are the *only* ones that will succeed. He does recommend the content as being *sound* and *practical*, based upon extended use in many types of high schools.

ROTHNEY, J. W. M. *The High School Student*. New York: Dryden Press. 1953. 287 pp. (paper cover). \$1.90. In most courses, classes, committees, and study groups, the time comes when theory needs to be focused by getting down to cases. This book is designed to meet that need. Pupils who are in training for high-school teaching and counseling must realize that, regardless of the size of their classes, they will eventually be concerned with individual students. Teachers in service who want to grow professionally and those who take refresher courses feel the need to have general principles illustrated by study of specific cases. Courses in this field of sociology and adolescent psychology may be made more meaningful and realistic if case illustrations are brought to the attention of the pupils, and workers in the field of guidance certainly need to study the kind of students they will be called upon to counsel. The process of random sampling by which these cases were obtained is described in the book, but it should be noted that the process was such that a good sample of youth in American public high schools was obtained.

This book is not designed to illustrate best methods of dealing with cases, nor does it present a plea for any one way of dealing with adolescent problems. It provides information with which to work, basic data for interpretation by the pupil, and some suggestions and questions about methods that were used or could be used.

WATTENBARGER, J. L. *A State Plan for Public Junior Colleges with Special Reference to Florida*. Gainesville: Univ. of Florida Press. 1953. 95 pp. \$1.50 (paper cover). This book proposes a plan with special reference to Florida. A

junior college which performs all its normal functions is a community college. This means it serves both youth and adults of a limited geographic area. From a consideration of the criteria for the organization and administration of community colleges it becomes obvious that not every community supporting a high school can have a college as the capstone of its public school system. But a group of smaller communities connected by modern highways can co-operate to provide a junior college which is adequately financed and of sufficient size to offer a program of work of just as high quality as that offered in a state university.

When the principle of minimum quality is combined with the principle of equalization of educational opportunity throughout a state, it becomes necessary to have a state plan for junior college. This involves a legal framework of laws and regulations, practical provision for financial aid according to the equalization principle, and minimum over-all administration under the guidance of the principles and policies embodied in the state plan. The author's proposal for a state system of junior colleges should be stimulating and helpful to laymen, public school officials, and educators who wish either to organize a system of junior colleges or to improve an existing organization.

WHITE, MORTON, editor. *Academic Freedom, Logic, and Religion*. (Volume 2) Philadelphia: Univ. of Penna. Press. 1953. 167 pp. \$2.75. These are ten papers presented at the symposia held at the annual meeting of the American Philosophical Association at the University of Rochester, December 28-30, 1953.

WOLFFHEIM, NELLY. *Psychology in the Nursery School*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 15 E. 40th St. 1953. 144 pp. \$3.75. This book translated from the German by Charles L. Hannam describes the author's attempt to enlarge the function of the nursery school. She attempts to present an understanding of the complicated endlessly varied home-school and teacher-child relationships involved. The author discusses erotic friendships, the Oedipus complex, play and occupations in school, and the development of communal life among children. She cites many case histories from her own experience to support what she has to say.

Books for Pupil - Teacher Use

ALLEN, D. L. *Our Wildlife Legacy*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Co. 1954. 432 pp. \$5. This is a book about the natural world which we share from sea to sea with a hundred other kinds of life—creatures of land and air and water who are as much a part of our world as is the pattern of our geography. The author's basic purpose is to explain what is happening among the populations of birds, mammals, and fish that inhabit our fields, woods, and waters; his book is extremely lively reading. He is at home with quail, grouse, pheasant, squirrels, rabbits, raccoons, lynxes, foxes, trout, bass, smelt, bears, deer, and even mountain lions. He writes of their lives and livelihoods with the vigorous conviction that wildlife, however expendable in nature and by man, is an integral part of our world and must be planned for, managed, and conserved. This is a book which will open new vistas to the imagination of everyone who delights in the outdoors.

AMSBARY, M. A. *Caesar's Angel*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 288 pp. 35c, pocket edition. This is the story of a ruthless political boss whose thirst for power drew him into a vicious network of vice and corruption that could lead only to disaster. A Signet book.

ASIMOV, ISAAC. *The Currents of Space*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 176 pp. 25c, pocket edition. This is an exciting novel of life in future worlds.

AUSUBEL, NATHAN. *Pictorial History of the Jewish People*. New York: Crown Publishers. 1953. 352 pp. (8" x 11"). \$5.00. This is a picture story of the Jewish people from Biblical times to the present. It is encyclopedic in nature, presenting events of Jewish history, the essence of Jewish ideas, and the names and facts about notable Jewish people. There are more than 1,200 related pictures in the book. The author has spent a lifetime of study and years of research in the preparation of the text and commentaries.

BAKER, DOROTHY. *Young Man with a Horn*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 144 pp. 25c, pocket edition. This is the story of the life and loves, the triumphs and ultimate tragedy of a young musician who soared to the heights of fame, but broke his heart striving for an impossible goal.

BAKER, N. B. *Pike of Pike's Peak*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 152 pp. \$2.50. Zebulon Pike entered the U. S. Army as a boy of fifteen and rose rapidly in rank, becoming a general just before his death at the age of thirty-four. He was not, however, a fighter or military strategist, but an explorer whose achievements did much to open the West. It was he who traced the Mississippi to within twenty-five miles of its source soon after the Louisiana Purchase, and who later surveyed the southwestern part of the Purchase as far as the Mexican border. Wherever he went he made friends with the Indians, carrying Jefferson's doctrine of peace and brotherhood, disproving the theory held by many that there is no good Indian save a dead one. Today Pike is known chiefly as the man who discovered one of our highest mountains, which was later named for him, and yet this was a mere incident in a colorful and exciting life.

BARKE, JAMES. *The Crest of the Broken Wave*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1953. 320 pp. \$3.50. In this book we find Burns building his own home, Ellisland, again leading the life of the farmer but ever alert intellectually to the great social reformations and revolutions in the making on both sides of the Atlantic. It is about the life and loves of Burns at the height of his creative powers. Though acclaimed as Scotland's national bard, he is bitterly aware of the empty glory of the fame so far as any worth-while improvement in his immediate prospects are concerned. He has left the scene of his triumph in the Edinburgh drawing rooms and is a farmer again. He tries to wrest a living from the grudging soil of Ellisland. He has much on his mind with the cares of a wife and family for whom he is determined to make a home. The book ends with the abandonment of the farm and of the life he had known since boyhood.

This is the fourth book by the author on the life of Burns. He will continue the story of Burns in a concluding volume under the title *The Well of the Silent Harp*. Other books in this series are: *The Wind That Shakes the Barley* (covers the years from his birth in Ayr to the time of his early fame as a local celebrity); *The Song in the Green Thorn Tree* (recounts Burns' career through the publication of the first edition of his poems to his departure for the literary capital of this world, Edinburgh); *The Wonder of All the Gay World* (describes the period when Burns was the hero of all Scotland).

BARKER, SHIRLEY. *Fire and the Hammer*. New York: Crown Pub. 1953. 349 pp. \$3.50. To Lass Marwayne, fiery red-headed daughter of a blockade runner of the

1770's, "free America" meant she could do what she wanted. To the man she loved, Mahlon Doan, it meant following the Quaker "light," refusing to pay taxes to the Continental Congress and, with five other Doans, waging a war within a war. The Doans, storming along the Pennsylvania highways, going from hold-up to hold-up, from increasing violence to the edge of the scaffold, become the great doomed figures, the outlaw legend of their time. Valley Forge, Trenton, and Philadelphia are the back-drops of this story into which are woven soldiers, outlaws, spies, and statesmen. It takes place during a time when only great hope could bring a new country and a new freedom to birth.

BARRETT, W. E. *The Shadows of the Images*. Garden City: Doubleday and Co. 1953. 540 pp. \$3.95. Four people were caught up in the whirlpool of good and evil that eddies through the pages of this novel. Tom Logan, the idealistic lieutenant of detectives, was faced with a choice of clashing loyalties. Vicky Leighton, the girl with so much to give, almost lost her one chance for giving. Paul Logan, Tom's younger brother and a law student, turned passion into devotion and devotion into blindness. Beverly Colter, the self-indulgent child of divorce, was a liar who came to believe her own lies and, through her hysterical actions, almost to wreck the lives of all about her. The setting is a large western city where the teeming population of Spanish American workers is a political as well as a sociological problem.

BILLINGS, HENRY. *Superliner S.S. United States*. New York: Viking Press. 1953. 128 pp. \$3. In this book the author takes his reader on a tour of this great ship as she crosses the Atlantic on her third voyage. The reader inspects the deck, the engine, and the stewards' departments. He feels the pulse of a small town afloat, population 2,000. This ship upon twenty-four hours' notice can be converted into a troopship that can transport 14,000 men. This ship is the product of more than one hundred years of intense rivalry among steamships to break and hold the record for speed on one of the most difficult and dangerous sea lanes in the world.

BRAGDON, H. W., and McCUTCHEN, S. P. *History of a Free People*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1954. 736 pp. \$4.00. This book is divided into 9 parts with a total of 32 chapters: Part One is entitled "A New Country in a New World"; Part Two, "The Formation of the Federal Union"; Part Three, "Launching a New Government"; Part Four, "The Nation and the Sections"; Part Five, "Division and Union"; Part Six, "The Emergence of Modern America"; Part Seven, "The United States Becomes a World Power"; Part Eight, "Prosperity and Depression"; and Part Nine, "World Leadership." The book has many maps, charts, and pictures—some in color. Each part has a divider sheet which has on one side a reproduction of some historic document or newspaper page related to the period and the other side carrying the title of the part and the titles of the chapters composing the part. Each chapter is introduced with an appropriate quotation, is divided into major topics with subtitles, and includes suggested aids as follows: questions to be answered and placed in the notebook; studying maps, recognizing names, places, etc. and telling who, what, and why; topics for class discussions, and individual activities. There is, in addition to a 20-page index, an appendix containing the following materials: presidents, parties, elections, 1789-1953; a chart showing the dates of admission, population (1950 census), number of representatives (1950 apportionment), and area in square miles for each state; the Declaration of Independence; Jefferson's first inaugural address; the Monroe Doctrine; Lincoln's second inaugural address; the Populist party platform of 1892; Wilson's first inaugural address; a speech on rugged individualism by Herbert Hoover in New York City, on October 22, 1928; and F. D. Roosevelt's first inaugural address.

BREWINGTON, M. V. *Chesapeake Bay, A Pictorial Maritime History*. Cambridge, Md.: Cornell Maritime Press, Box 109. 1953. 252 pp. (7" x 10 1/4"). \$6.50. This is an attempt to assemble a portion of the wealth of pictures of events, objects, and vessels on and around Chesapeake Bay; and, with a minimum of text, let them tell the Bay's maritime story from its first settlement down to the present. This area is rich in history. Here the first permanent English settlement was made; here shipbuilding as a profession had its American beginnings; here the first of our purely local watercraft was developed. For a century and a half the Chesapeake's waters carried cargoes of greater value and bulk than all the rest of America combined. These waters saw America's first naval engagements, the first amphibious expedition, and the action which altered the whole course of naval warfare. In fact, this Bay had a major part in our national as well as local history.

There are more than 260 pictures—many of them full page—dating from 1585 to 1953. The book is divided into fifteen parts: Foreword; The Explorers and Settlers; Shipbuilding; Sailing Vessels; Steamboats; Ferries; Baycraft; The Ports; Commerce and Trade; Maritime Artisans; Oysters, Crabs, and Fish; Pilots; Privateering, Piracy, and War; The Bay's Maritime Museums; and Sport.

BRIDGMAN, MARGARET. *Love Is a Place*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls. 1953. 339 pp. \$3.50. Katharine Fox is thirtyish, she is in love with her husband and their children, and she is not quite happy about them in either case. She feels no enthusiasm for housework or the preparation of school lunches, and she delights in the companionship of her neighbors and her friends. She is not a girl any more, but she is much too young in heart and mind for middle age. The problems are small, but they are persistent and their roots are deep. It would be good if she and Roger understood each other better without loving each other less. It would be good if she knew why little Button had nightmares and why the summer move to the country was something to anticipate with as much dread as she did. She knows that there is nothing outwardly remarkable or special about herself and that happiness is not an automatic product of a conventional life.

BRINTON, CRANE. *The Shaping of the Modern Mind (Part II of Ideas and Men)*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 288 pp. 35c, pocket edition. This book is the concluding half of *Ideas and Men*, a history of western thought from classical times to the present. This book covers the period since the Renaissance. A Mentor Book.

BUCHANAN, LAMONT. *The Pictorial Baseball Instructor*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 124 pp. \$2.95. This book on baseball shows by means of 182 photographs just how each position is played—and on three levels, the College level, the Big League professionals, and the Little League.

The college section includes many action pictures of the Columbia University team with specific instruction by Coach John Balquist, one of the best college coaches in the country. Columbia's star pitcher Jim King of Brooklyn, New York, shows his pitching style; second baseman LeRoy Guittar, a Phi Beta Kappa student, tells of the fun and excitement of a baseball trip—how they travel, what and when they eat, their warm-ups, and how they analyze their opponents' weaknesses. There is a section on how Coach Balquist flashes his signals to his players—the same type of signals as used in the Big Leagues. The varsity trainer Leon "Red" Romo gives his rules for conditioning and keeping in shape.

In the Major League section, the first instruction has to do with pitching and catching, with illustrations by Vic Raschi, Preacher Roe, Joe Black, Allie Reynolds, and other

great players. Here are top catchers of the game like Yogi Berra and Roy Campanella showing how to guard the plate, make tag-outs, and go after pop-ups. In the section on infield, outfield and hitting, Gil Hodges and Ferris Fain illustrate one of the most important rules of the first-base job. Ray Boone of Detroit shows how to work the double play pivot. The Yankee's spectacular Mickey Mantle shows his base running form, while other experts give instruction on sliding. There are tips on playing third, one of the most difficult positions, and specific instruction on backing up overthrows in the infield.

The last section takes up the Little League, giving a brief history of what it is and how it came about—with action shots of the Little Champs in their biggest moments and games.

CALDWELL, ERSKINE. *A Lamp for Nightfall*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 160 pp. 25c, pocket edition. One of America's favorite storytellers turns to New England as the scene for this novel.

CARRINGTON, HERWARD, editor. *The Week-end Book of Ghost Stories*. New York: Ives Washburn. 1953. 280 pp. \$3.50. The sub-title of this book is "Twenty Tales of the Supernatural—To Chill and Entertain." Included are twenty stories about the supernatural from a varied list of authors. Some are old and well known, such as Jacob's "The Monkey's Paw," while others are stories which many but the most avid fan may have missed. Many people are cynical about ghosts, but probably they would think twice before allowing themselves to be locked up all night in an old church or castle popularly supposed to be haunted. So long as this deep-seated element in our nature persists, the ghost story will doubtless continue to enjoy its popularity.

CARSON, RACHEL. *The Sea Around Us*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 176 pp. 35c, pocket edition. Here are fascinating revelations about the magic and mystery of the ocean presented by an eminent scientist.

CARSTENS, GRACE. *Born a Yankee*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1954. 250 pp. \$3. The setting of this book, the author's first novel, is Cape Cod. The story is that of Kate Fyfe, last of a noble line of Yankees, whose "privilege" it is to dedicate her life to the care of museum-like Fyfe House and to uphold the traditions of her ancestors. Half Yankee-martyr and half Yankee-heretic, Kate slowly comes to realize that the role of an unloved tradition is not for her. With a tart tongue, a candid mind, and considerable wit, Kate tells her own story, from her initial crime of being born a girl to the decisive and untraditional action she takes in the end.

CHAMBERLAIN, NARCISSA. *Old Rooms for New Living*. New York: Hastings House. 1953. 196 pp. \$4.50. In a short introductory chapter, Mrs. Chamberlain gives a chronological story of the furnishings and the interiors of the various periods—the Puritan, the Queen Anne, Georgian, Federal, and Empire. The 190 illustrations, which follow, and their explanatory captions describe the individual features of each period with suggestions as to how they may be used in modern adaptation.

One chapter deals with halls and stairways; another, living rooms and libraries. The author suggests how to install a television set without marring the harmony of an old, paneled room. There is a chapter on dining rooms and kitchens. Modern gadgets are not permitted to disturb the antique charm, kept in spite of them. Bedrooms occupy another section of the illustrations. Then there are odd rooms. She does not neglect the fascinating subject of what to do with an old attic, nor those items of concern to every woman: curtains and curtain materials. Small spaces under stairs and odd superfluous corners are made useful by easy transformation into most attractive powder rooms. The

book goes into wall treatments, beds, desks, chairs, cupboards and shelves. And there is a whole section on fireplaces, with ideas how best to handle them.

CHESKIN, LOUIS. *How To Color-Tune Your Home*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1953. 221 pp. \$5. This book tells how to find out, and how to use a scientific knowledge of color toward increasing one's pleasure in every room in his home. Louis Cheskin, the author, is a noted authority on color. He reveals here how color affects everyday living; why one likes or dislikes certain colors; how one can unfold his subconscious reactions to colors. He discusses optical and psychological aspects of color; but, more important, he tells one how to solve his color problems.

How can a dozen colors be effectively combined to make a room of harmony and unity? What colors should be avoided in a dining room? What combination of colors will reduce nervousness and irritability? What color arrangement will make your living room dynamic? restful? static? passive? Scientifically tested answers to hundreds of such questions are given in this book.

Mr. Cheskin reports results of many experiments and presents actual examples that demonstrate the tremendous power colors have on your emotions, attitudes, behavior, and psychological well-being, even though one may not realize it. One's home surroundings may be irritating or they may be inspiring. They are never neutral. There are twelve color charts that show 300 colors systematized in harmonious combinations and twelve examples of color-tuned interiors based on the color charts. With these charts one can readily achieve color combinations that are best.

CHESSER, EUSTACE. *How To Make a Success of Your Marriage*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 128 pp. 25c, pocket edition. In this book, a psychologist and marriage counselor offers advice on the various aspects of married life from the honeymoon and the adjustments of the early years, through parenthood and old age.

CHUDLARIAN, RUBEN. *City of Oil*. New York 1: William-Frederick Press. 1953. 167 pp. \$3. This is the Armenian saga of restless and troubled Russia in transition from Czar to Revolution. It is a story of conscience-stricken people in a desperate struggle with themselves, a novel told with suspense. It is a story of a series of betrayals in which the elements of despair and recrimination make up a sort of inescapable circle of fate.

CLARK, W. B. *The First Saratoga*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State Univ. Press. 1953. 212 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of a man and a ship—a gallant sea captain whose deeds have passed into oblivion; a stanch sloop-of-war that plied the seas for three brief, sensational cruises and then, like her commander, entered the limbo of the forgotten. The man was John Young, one-time shipmaster of New York and later twenty-third captain in order of seniority in the navy of the American Revolution. The ship was the Continental sloop-of-war *Saratoga*, which, somewhere in the latitude of the Bahamas, started for the American navy that sad list to which many a fighting craft has been added since: "Lost at sea, unheard of." There are many who figure prominently in this tale—among them Joanna Young, the devoted wife of the captain, and Francis Lewis, one of New York's great Revolutionary figures. And there are other naval vessels which appear: the *Trumbull*, the *Deane*, and the *Confederacy*, to mention a few. Primarily, however, this is the saga of John Young and the *Saratoga*.

The Complete Works of O. Henry. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1953. 1,718 pp. 2 volumes. These two volumes are actually thirteen books by this outstanding author. He was a man who has captured the humor, the irony, and the tragedy of everyday life. Henry Hansen, in his foreword of the volumes, says: "O. Henry is a

master of make-believe who puts a romantic glow over everyday living. By drawing characters who are wistful when lucky and brave in adversity, he answers the eternal demand for a good story." The thirteen stories included in this two-volume collection are: Volume I—"The Four Million," "The Heart of the West," "The Gentle Grafter," "Roads of Destiny," "Cabbages and Kings," and "Options;" Volume II—"Sixes and Sevens," "Rolling Stones," "Whirligigs," "The Voice of the City," "The Trimmed Lamp," "Strictly Business," and "Waifs and Strays."

CONNOLLY, CYRIL, editor. *Great English Short Novels*. New York: Dial Press, 1953. 879 pp. \$6. This book is a collection of some of the best older English novels. The emphasis is on lesser-known novels than those usually known by all classes of readers. The editor says of his selections, "When we find an imaginary experience which enriches our understanding of existence and which involves two or three people, not a whole society, and when we can detect signs of pressure and elimination—in fact, intensity—surrounding that experience, then we can be sure that we have come upon an excellent short novel." The editor's selections, based upon his foregoing statement, include an imaginary biography, an adventure story, an analytical love story, a biography, three types of psychological thrillers, an allegory, and a comedy of manners.

CONRAD, JOSEPH. *Tales of Land and Sea*. New York: Hanover House, 1953. 703 pp. \$3. This is a discriminating collection of twelve of Conrad's finest novels and stories. In this volume are found stories of the sea which have made the far reaches of the oceans and distant shores of tropic islands familiar to millions of readers. Included in this collection are "Youth," "Heart of Darkness," "The Nigger of the Narcissus," "Il Conde," "Gaspar Ruiz," "The Brute," "Typhoon," "The Secret Sharer," "Freya of the Seven Isles," "The Duel," "The End of the Tether," and "The Shadow-Line."

COTLOW, LEWIS. *Amazon Head-Hunters*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 240 pp. 35c, pocket edition. This is the story of a prosperous businessman's adventures on three trips during which he lived with head-hunters in the perilous jungles of Ecuador and Peru.

COZENS, F. W., and STUMPF, F. S. *Sports in American Life*. Chicago 37: Univ. of Chicago Press. 1953. 376 pp. \$5. In this book the authors trace the growth of American sports since the beginning of the century. Here is the history of sports in which the authors show the catalytic effects of urbanization and industrialization, communication and transportation, on the sports life of the nation. They show the direct relationship between sports and our high standard of living. They show that sports in their broad variety, high organization, and peculiarly unifying power are only another manifestation of national vitality.

DOBBIE, E. V. K., editor. *Beowulf and Judith*. New York 27: Columbia Univ. Press. 1953. 389 pp. \$6. This book contains the epic poems, *Beowulf* and *Judith*, both written in the Anglo-Saxon. The editor devotes 100 pages to his preface and introduction. Here he discusses and compares the various manuscripts and transcripts, the sectional divisions in the poems, the use of small capitals, abbreviations, and punctuation and accent mark. Following this is presented the content and historical background of *Beowulf* and *Judith*, plus an extensive classified bibliography. *Beowulf* contains 3,182 lines of poetry, while *Judith* contains only 349 lines. These 349 lines are considered only a fragment of what was once a much longer work—somewhere between 1,200 and 1,320 lines. It is now generally recognized that the source of this latter poem was the Latin Vulgate text of the apocryphal book of *Judith*. A section of 177 pages contains elaborate notes on these two poems—each note keyed to the number line.

EDWARDS, W. B. *The Story of Colt's Revolver*. Harrisburg, Penna.: The Stackpole Co. 1953. 470 pp. (7½" x 10¾"). \$10. This is the story of not only an invention of a new procedure—mass production—but also an amazing family. It is the tale of a Yankee boy and a dream coming true. In this biography the trials and tribulations of an energetic, ambitious, yet frustrated young man are told, portraying the saga of opportunity in young America with its relationship of success to influence for a middle-aged man.

Samuel Colt's new and efficient repeating firearm had a molding influence on American history. Basically, the early Colt revolver was the weapon of the civilian, for as great a salesman as Samuel Colt actually was, he was repeatedly rebuffed by the politicians and the high brass of the army and the navy. It was not until shortly after Colt's death during the Civil War that his invention became a weapon in both handgun and rifle versions.

As great as was his invention, still it was his conceiving the process of mass production that probably has had the greatest effect. The assembly line, interchangeable parts, and revolutionary machinery made the manufacture of firearms a flourishing business. Had he been able to spend his time in research, other new and amazing discoveries would have been forthcoming, but lobbying, lavish entertainment, and selling required much of his valuable time and energy. The pace was fast, and how he bore up under such a life is hardly understandable, particularly in view of the fact that that spectacular complication raised its ugly head in his firmly knit family group—murder, suicide, dueling, illness, fatality struck all around this mechanical genius. These and countless others are the incidences that are related in this volume.

ELSTON, A. V. *Stage Road to Denver*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 223 pp. \$2.50. This is a story of manifest destiny; a story of young and brawling Denver in 1876—the year Colorado was admitted to the Union. It was a city where three pioneer streams met, clashed, and finally fused—the miners, the grangers, and the gamblers; and it is pictured here in a way to make the reader stride for himself the dust-paved streets and down the high plank walks with jingling spurs. Among the men who come to Denver by stage and saddle—seeking to change it and themselves into something worse or better—are Terry Woodford and Milo Patterson. The unemployed cowboy and the gambler with vaunting ambition are bound to meet and clash—and in lovely Faith Harlan they find a focus for their struggle. Terry suspects that a certain murder lies behind Milo's sudden wealth, but it is a long, dangerous struggle until the day when guns are drawn at the corner of 16th and Larimer and justice is finally meted out.

EWEN, DAVID. *European Composers Today*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1954. 200 pp. \$4.00. This biographical and critical guide to prominent European composers is a companion piece to the author's *American Composers Today*, published by Wilson in 1949. It sketches the lives and lists the chief compositions of 106 composers who have written music since the turn of the century. Portraits are included of all the composers with the exception of the retiring Breton, Le Flem.

"Most of the material in this volume," writes the author, "was procured directly from first-hand sources—from the composers themselves." During an extended trip to Europe in 1953, he was able to meet many of these people personally. These direct and personal meetings enabled him to include several significant European composers about whom little or no information is available in this country. Celebrated European composers who emigrated to this country or South America in the 1930's and the war years and remained permanently are included in *American Composers Today*. They are consequently listed by name only in *European Composers Today*, with a cross-reference to the earlier vol-

ume. The pronunciation of unusual or difficult names is indicated in footnotes. At the end of the volume are a list of composers classified by nationality; an index to the sketches in which major schools, styles, and idioms are discussed; and a selective bibliography.

FARRELL, J. T. *The Face of Time*. New York: Vanguard Press. 1953. 376 pp. The specific theme of this novel is life and decay and the mutations effected by time. Here is young Danny O'Neil facing a frightening and unsympathetic world; here is his father who has grudgingly surrendered his favorite child. Here is Danny's wonderful grandmother, his two aunts, his uncle, and his grandfather. It is the story of a family on the south side of Chicago.

FARRELL, J. T. *Father and Son*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 477 pp. 50c, pocket edition. This is the story of a young Irish boy growing up in the tough world of Chicago's South Side.

FEIRER, J. L. *Advanced Woodwork and Furniture Making*. Peoria 3, Ill.: Charles A. Bennett Co. 1954. 400 pp. \$3.96. This book is organized into six main sections: Section I tells how to select, design, and plan the furniture that is to be built and includes information on design, types of furniture construction, lumber and plywood, and how to make and read a drawing. Section II tells how to get started in machine woodworking and includes information on measuring, transferring a design, and getting out and gluing up stock. Section III covers all of the special problems in furniture making such as constructing all kinds of joints, hanging a door, panel construction, and many others. Section IV is devoted to the application of a good finish to furniture and wood. Section V describes all of the common power tools. Each is dealt with thoroughly but only the more important and more common operations are included. Section VI contains a suggested list of furniture pieces. Safety is stressed throughout the book. There are many ideas with which to work and suggested sources for others. In many cases the craftsman using this kind of book will have a design or idea of his own in mind.

FISCHER, LOUIS. *Gandhi, His Life Message for the World*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 192 pp. 25c, pocket edition. This is a moving story of a great modern spiritual and political leader and a revealing analysis of India's pivotal position in world affairs. It was published on January 30, 1954, the fifth anniversary of Gandhi's death, with world-wide observance of this day in the newspapers, on radio, and on television. This is the warmly human life story of one of the world's greatest men, the prime mover in India's struggle for independence, and a spiritual leader whose simple inspiring philosophy has influenced millions throughout the world.

FITCH, F. M. *A Book About God*. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co. 1953. 28 pp. (8" x 10 1/4"). \$2. This book contains 11 large pictures in color, each facing a page of text of simple, well-chosen words which explains briefly the idea of God. The illustrations are by Leonard Weisgard. Text and pictures are for the young reader, but the slow reader in the junior high school will also find it interesting.

FREIDEL, FRANK. *Franklin D. Roosevelt: The Ordeal*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co. 1954. 332 pp. \$6. "With this notable distinguished work, the fullest of all biographies of Roosevelt is brilliantly launched," wrote J. G. Randall of *Franklin D. Roosevelt: The Apprenticeship*, the first volume of Professor Frank Freidel's projected six-volume life of the late President. Historians everywhere agreed that here was the first volume of what—to quote Arthur Schlesinger, Jr.—"promises to be the most complete and careful life of Franklin Roosevelt we will have in our time." Now, in *The Ordeal*, Frank Freidel goes on with the Roosevelt story "in this amazing second volume

of his monumental biography. For those who want that full story without either rose-tinted glasses or the spectacles of smear, Dr. Freidel alone offers it," writes Jonathan Daniels. "His detailed and documented book is both fascinating reading and one of the most brilliant works of scholarship about any American in our time.

"*The Ordeal* tells of the forgotten years in Roosevelt's life from the end of his Navy career and the beginnings of polio to his election as Governor of New York in the year in which the Democratic party seemed in every other case almost finally destroyed. These will not be forgotten years any longer. Roosevelt partisans, Roosevelt patriots, and just Americans interested in the American story will find Dr. Freidel's report one of the most important books of the decade." Based largely on hitherto unpublished materials, this is the dramatic story of a personable and ambitious young political leader who refused to accept defeat after he was buried in the Harding landslide and crippled by polio. It is the record of his ceaseless and skillful fight to come back physically and politically—a struggle culminating in his spectacular election as Governor of New York.

GALDSTON, IAGO, editor. *The Epidemiology of Health*. New York 14: Health Education Council, 10 Downing St. 1953. 207 pp. \$4. This book of fifteen chapters is based on the eleventh annual Eastern States Health Education Conference. It is an attempt to crystallize a well-rounded concept of the new epidemiology of health. Epidemiology has for a long time carried the connotation of mass disease—though the word itself simply denotes study and knowledge of groups or crowds. This book presents the concept of the *healthy mass*. It offers suggestions on how the objective of health in the mass can be effectively achieved. An epidemiology of health is already pursued in the U. S. Army and to a lesser extent in American industry. It has the promise of extending rapidly into the area of individual and community health through behavior-centered health education.

GOLENPAUL, DAN, editor. *Information Please Almanac, 1954*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1953. 928 pp. \$1. This is the annual edition of the series which was begun in 1947 by John Kieran. It follows the same general plan of organization as was characteristic of previous editions except for the fact that this 1954 edition contains two new sections—"Headline History of Our Times" and "Economics of the World We Live In." Here also is information on news of 1953, sports, maps, the Congress of the United States, educational statistics, who's who, who was who, science, religion, nations of the world, firsts in America, biographies on U. S. Presidents, conferences and treaties, elections, the U. S. Armed Services, postal regulations, foreign phrases and their English translations, crossword puzzle solving, and hundreds of other interesting items, plus a 44-page index.

HANSEN, HARRY, editor. *The World Almanac and Book of Facts for 1954*. New York 15: New York World-Telegram and the Sun, 125 Barclay St.. 1954. 896 pp. \$1.; by mail, \$1.10. Here, in more compact and readable form than ever before, is a reference work of the utmost usefulness, and an encyclopedia of timely information for students, teachers, editors, business and professional men, as well as for the general reader who wants to be well informed. The pages of the *World Almanac* chronicle the major events and policies of our country and provide a basis for judging the year to come. They give a perspective on the confusing moves of diplomacy; the political upheavals in foreign lands; the tremendous impact of tensions and events on the White House, Downing Street, the Quai d'Orsay, and the Kremlin; and the crucial decisions of the United Nations. Likewise, the *World Almanac* presents the spectacle and drama of the year: the coronation of Queen Elizabeth, the conquest of Mount Everest, the explosion of artillery A-bombs and the hydrogen bomb, the first year of Eisenhower as President, and the new discoveries in aviation. And in the regular departments on

which Americans have depended for nearly 70 years, the *World Almanac* gives a full report of the sports events and personalities of 1953, including the final football scores, the latest population figures, a complete roster of colleges and universities, and a wealth of religious and cultural information.

Revisions in postal rates, which went into effect in the fall of 1953, are published in the new book—so are the election returns of the fall of 1953, which supplement returns of Presidential elections since 1900. There is a review of the work of the U. S. Congress, including the enactment of new laws and the record of investigating committees of the Senate and the House of Representatives. A full roster of cabinet officials, past and present, and members of Congress is published. Government reports include those for the Veterans Administration, the Social Security Administration, the Bureau of Internal Revenue, the FBI, the International Monetary Fund, and many others. The revised immigration quota, laws affecting naturalization and citizenship, regulations governing travel abroad, and the newest state laws affecting marriage and divorce are reported in the *World Almanac*.

HANSON, J. M. *Bull Run Remembers*. Manassas, Va.: National Capitol Publishers. 1953. 204 pp. This narrative is a guide for visitors to the scenes of the two Bull Run Campaigns. It is also of interest to the reader as it tells him the story of the battlefield areas; it informs him of where and how to find the existing points of interest, including not only the battlefields, but also the houses and other landmarks of the Virginia countryside.

HARDY, THOMAS. *The Return of the Native*. New York: Globe Book Co. 1953. 477 pp. \$2.32. This book has been abridged and edited by Verda Evans, chairman of the English Department of East High School in Cleveland, Ohio. This story, considered by many critics as Hardy's best novel, takes place about 1850 in the relatively small area known as Egdon Heath in England. The story covers a day and a year in time. In this abridged edition of this famous classic, none of the author's words have been changed. Great care has been taken to preserve Hardy's fore-shadowing of tragedy and his emphasis on the timeliness of the heath as opposed to man's frantic, short-lived attempts to defeat it.

HARWIN, BRIAN. *Home Is Upriver*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 160 pp. 25c, pocket edition. This is a novel of love and romance on the Mississippi River. A Signet book.

HENRY, MARGUERITE. *Brighty of the Grand Canyon*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co. 1953. 224 pp. \$2.95. A shaggy little burro who blazed trails through the wild and rocky world of the Grand Canyon is the hero of the story. An old prospector living in the canyon found the burro running wild. He named him Brighty. When the prospector mysteriously died, Brighty again roamed free. Over 100 illustrations are included in this book.

HERR, J. K., and WALLACE, E. S. *The Story of the U. S. Cavalry*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1953. 285 pp. \$6. Here in pictures and text is the colorful history of the U. S. Cavalry—from its modest beginnings in the Revolutionary War, through its abolition, so far as the horse was concerned, in 1942, to the mechanized operations of the Korean War. It is an authoritative picture of the cavalry's days of glory—fighting the British, policing the frontier, warring with the Mexicans and Indians, protecting our westward expansion, assuming a major role on both sides in the Civil War, breaking the resistance of the Sioux and Cheyennes, skirmishing with lesser tribes, taking part in our foreign wars, and, finally, giving way to tanks and armored vehicles. The authors of this book feel that the horse has not outlived its military usefulness.

even though the modern battlefield is dominated by machines. In the final chapter of this book, they describe the capture, in Korea, of 500 American troops by mounted Red Chinese cavalymen. They are convinced that this tragedy and others like it could not have happened if we had retained a horse cavalry of our own.

The Holy Bible. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons. 1953. 1,026 pp. (No. 2803) Sturdite Binding. This is the text edition of the Revised Standard Version containing both the Old and New Testaments. The book is $5\frac{1}{4}$ inches by $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in size and weighs less than a pound and a half. The usual arrangement of chapter and verses is followed. Those parts of the Bible that were written in poetry are included here in poetical form. The paper and type is such that lends to ease in reading. There are twelve pages of pictures and twelve pages of maps, all in color, which add to the attractiveness and usefulness of the book.

HOWARD, J. T. *Stephen Foster*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell. 1953. 449 pp. \$5. *Stephen Foster*, America's troubadour, a standard biography of the composer since its original publication in 1934, has been revised and brought up to date. The new material regarding Foster during his lifetime is presented in various sections of this new edition. Definite location of the site of his birthplace and a full discussion of the house that Henry Ford moved to Dearborn, Michigan, are included. There is a newly discovered letter written by Foster to his sister in 1845; new data on the song "My Old Kentucky Home, Good Night"; and new information about hitherto unknown periods in Foster's life, particularly his last days. The final chapter has been completely rewritten and extended to give an account of the many Foster memorials that have been instituted during recent years, notably the Foster Hall Collection at the University of Pittsburgh and the Stephen Foster Museum and Memorial Park at White Springs, Florida. The number of illustrations has been increased to forty-six, twenty-one of which are new. There are photographs of Foster and his family, letters, facsimiles of first editions and manuscripts, and dioramas representing various ballads by this little-known genius.

HUNT, SIR JOHN. *The Conquest of Everest*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1954. 320 pp. \$6. The conquest of Mount Everest, announced on the very day of the Coronation of Queen Elizabeth II, has captured the imagination of the entire civilized world. "In the human terms of physical effort and endurance alone," the Duke of Edinburgh writes of this momentous achievement, "it will live in history as a shining example to all mankind."

In this book, Sir John Hunt, leader of the British Expedition, gives the complete, authoritative, and deeply moving story of that great undertaking. He tells of the preparations, the painstaking effort to foresee every contingency, and the valuable data gained from other, often ill-fated expeditions in the past. Against that background, Sir John Hunt was written an unforgettable chronicle of the struggle of men against a mountain. As the narrative reaches its climax, Sir Edmund Hillary gives his own, personal account of the final assault on the summit of Everest. The book contains a wealth of photographs, eight pages in full color and 48 pages in black and white, as well as many maps, sketches and drawings. It is enriched with valuable appendices on every aspect of the ascent. There are a complete glossary and index.

JACKSON, DELMAR. *The Cut of the Ax*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 315 pp. \$3.50. The minute they picked up Morales, the Mexican kid, and the man who called himself John Brown, it was clear to the marshal that his big chance had come. Murder had been committed, and if he could pin the crime on these two men the next election would see him sheriff of the county. Besides, there were men in town, important men, who would be grateful to him for life. This was a big one and he was going to wrap it up quick. And alone. His deputy, Paul Carr, watched him try and

sickened as he watched. The violence he saw flaring in the town jail behind the feed store involved more than the fate of these two men. Carr sensed what was to come, and in forty-eight hours the town also knew; it had been shaken from top to bottom and brought inexorably face to face with itself.

KIRKENDALL, L. A., and ZERAN, F. R. *Student Councils in Action*. New York 16: Chartwell House, 280 Madison Ave. 1953. 250 pp. \$3.25. This book discusses the fundamental philosophy of student participation in the management of the school as expressed through the student council. The authors address themselves not only to those whose primary responsibility is the student council, but also to those whose concern is the development of the full potentialities and capabilities of pupils in the secondary school. They emphasize not only that those who have been elected as officers of the student council should be keenly interested in the organization but also that the entire student body should understand the basic concepts of student participation. They challenge school administrators not only to speak of democratic practices in the schools, but also to take steps to make them operative within their schools.

The book is composed of a Foreword by Gerald M. Van Pool, Director of Student Activities of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a Preface, and eleven chapters. The titles of the chapters are: The Philosophy of Democratic Education, Basic Concepts of Student Participation Programs, Student-Faculty Participation and the Total Curriculum, The Scope and Development of a Student Council, the Machinery of the Student Council, The Student Council and Enforcement of Discipline, The Activity Program of the Student Council, Financing and Evaluation Problems, The Relationship of the Faculty, Administration, and Student Body to a School Council Program, The Duties of the Faculty Adviser, and The Student-Faculty Participation Program in the Total Life of the School.

KREPS, JR., C. H., and J. M., editors. *Aid, Trade, and Tariffs*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1953. 202 pp. \$1.75. This book presents background information and a variety of points of view on the major issues in the aid-trade-tariffs debates. The editors have drawn selections from *Fortune*, *The Reporter*, and other general magazines, and from a variety of business and financial journals and government sources. These selections have been grouped into four sections: The "Dollar Gap" and the Balance of Payments; Our Present Foreign Trade Policy; Freer Trade or Higher Tariffs? and Dollars Through Aid—or Trade? To aid readers in threading their way through conflicting arguments based on widely different premises, they have supplied a preface to the book as a whole and an introduction for each of the book's four sections. An extensive bibliography is also included.

LA FOLLETTE, B. C. and FOLA. *Robert M. La Follette*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1953. 1,305 pp., 2 volumes, boxed. \$15. This biography of one of Wisconsin's greatest statesmen, Robert M. La Follette, is a work which was twenty years in preparation. Started by his widow and completed by his daughter, it is based on family papers and interviews with Senator La Follette's contemporaries, both friendly and hostile. The book follows the dynamic La Follette family through Wisconsin and United States politics; in this period the elder La Follette was elected Governor of Wisconsin and United States Senator from Wisconsin; Robert La Follette, Jr., was elected to the United States Senate and his younger brother, Philip, was elected Governor of Wisconsin. The book traces the rise of the man who was eventually to be honored by having a marble bust of himself placed in the United States Capitol along with that of Father Marquette—one of Wisconsin's greatest sons. It tells of his struggles for his high principles, his fight against the entry of the United States into World War I, and his magnificent campaign for the Presidency through the organization of a third, major

political party. Many people, not only those in Wisconsin, will be interested to know of the many projects for which La Follette fought that have since become almost commonplace in our way of life.

LEACH, MARIA. *The Soup Stone*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls. 1954. 160 pp. \$2.75. The most wonderful things in the world are the things everybody takes for granted. The common objects of day-to-day living—shoes, rings, mirrors, napkins, gloves, your breath, carrots—have become freighted with magic, all over the world and in every age. Because so many people have lived with them for so many centuries, a great body of beliefs and magical practices has clustered about each of them. Not to know this special dimension of the most familiar articles is to miss a part of the wonder and delight of the world. The author has gathered into this book a collection of this folklore of everyday objects: windows, beds, needles and pins, pots and pans, keys, bread, and even sneezes and the lowly hiccup.

LINDEMAN, E. C., editor. *Basic Selections from Emerson*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 224 pp. 35c, pocket edition. Selections of essays, poems, and apothegms of one of America's outstanding men of letters.

LONG, F. E., and HALTER, HELEN. *Social-Studies Skills*. New York 3: Inor Pub. Co., 207 Fourth Ave. 1954. 143 pp. \$1.85. *Individual Self-Testing Key*, 36 pp., 12c. This supplementary textbook for social-studies pupils in the upper elementary or junior-high grades, or the first year of high school, was first published in 1942, and has gone through eight previous printings. Reports are that it has been quite helpful in improving pupils' skills in the various phases of social-studies classroom and library work. For this revised and enlarged edition, charts, graphs, text matter, and exercise materials have been brought up to date, and three new skills units have been added to the original twenty. The titles of the three added units are "How To Make a Current Events Report," "How To Take Notes," and "How To Draw Conclusions." Intended originally as a text that would free overworked teachers and librarians of the detail work of preparing and teaching materials on social-studies classroom, study, and library skills, this book has been also used as a means, incidentally, of improving pupils' work in other courses as well—many of the units give training in skills that are applicable in other subjects.

The purpose of the book is to improve pupil work in the social studies; increase the number of useful skills taught in the school; and relieve teachers and librarians of the preparation and much of the teaching of social-studies skills materials. Each unit is organized to give directions, practice materials, a test, and a retest on the skill covered. The *Individual Self-Testing Key* allows pupils to check their own work (or one another's work) and to proceed at their own pace. The book has a reading difficulty of sixth-grade placement. Selected units can be taught as needed during a one- or two-semester course, or the work can be covered by an average class in a short course of six to seven weeks.

LUKER, JULIA. *The Yeoman's Daughter*. New York: Exposition Press. 1953. 156 pp. \$3. This is a saga of Texas. It tells the story of Sarah Jane Smith. Born of southern parents after the Civil War, she grew up in Texas. Her career shows how a family of planter and yeoman background from the defeated South moves to Texas in a covered wagon, takes new roots and raises its children to become leaders and builders of the future. It tells of Texas—the folkways of the southern Negroes and whites, observations of Mexican and Indian life, the trials of pioneers, and the development of the state from a land of one-room schoolhouses to a land of colleges and universities.

MARGOLIUS, SIDNEY. *First National Tax and Budget Guide, 1954*. New York: William Morrow and Co. 1953. 143 pp. \$2.95. This book has been prepared for the

person interested in saving money. It includes budget and tax information plus automatic tax and budget forms for keeping individual permanent records. This is helpful to the person who is filling out his Federal income tax return and also to the person who operates on a budget.

MARGON, LESTER. *World Furniture Treasures*. New York 36: Reinhold Pub. Co. 1954. 1952 pp. (8 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ "). \$7.50. This is not a history of furniture; rather, it is a picture book for those who are interested in furniture. The collector, the antiquarian, and the student will find in it the answers to the question, "What is good design in furniture?" Likewise, those interested in making furniture will find the scaled drawings in Part II supplying the needed "How To Do It" information for study, reference, and possible reproduction of furniture of today and yesterday.

The eleven critical commentaries on furniture and its relation to the arts, which make up Part I, are personal evaluations, having a definite relation to the photographs and measured drawings. From a collection of over 500 measured drawings from Europe and America, dating from 1500 to today, fifty-three have been assembled in this book. While this book is not a craftsman's manual, the drawings are complete so that anyone who can read plans and has had cabinet working experience can use them to advantage. There are 170 photographs included to illustrate the measured drawings and to illuminate the text. It is composed of eleven chapters: "Tradition—Our Greatest Heritage," "What Is Good Design in Furniture?" "Peasant Furniture," "Furniture of the Provinces," "Colonial Furniture in America," "The 'Chinoiserie' Penetration," "From Egypt to Eames," "Architecture Takes Wings," "Science Plans the Interior," "Modern Painting and Furniture Design," and "New Furniture Design Tendencies."

MARTIN, LAWRENCE and SYLVIA. *The Standard Guide to Mexico and the Caribbean*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls. 1954. 638 pp. \$4.95. This book is the first definitive, inclusive, completely modern guide to the fabulous islands and ports of the Caribbean and the fascinating empire of Mexico. Whether for a brief business trip or a long vacation, a Robinson Crusoe sojourn on an off-the-beaten-path island or a round of the gay and fashionable resorts, here is a book to save its owner money, time, and disappointments. All the indispensable practical information is here: passports, currencies, transportation (air, ship, bus, rail, and car), clothes, hotels, trips, sports, food, drink, gifts, and a hundred other details. Here, too, is a gold mine of experienced advice about packing, health, prices and rates, getting along with the people who live there, special trips and points of interest, what to do, and what to avoid.

MAUZEY, MERRITT. *Cotton-Farm Boy*. New York: Abelard Press. 1953. 80 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Billy, a cotton-farm boy, who grew up in Texas. It contains the story of cotton—from the time the slump pullers cleared the land to the time the bales of white fleece wait on the wharfs to go in ships to far places.

MCLEAN, B. B., and CAMPBELL, T. H. *The Complete Meat Cookbook*. Peoria 3, Ill.: Charles A. Bennett Co. 1953. 560 pp. \$5.95. This book contains nearly 2,000 recipes on every meat dish, plain or fancy, for every taste and in every price range. The recipes have been selected as the best from the enormous number collected and tasted. The recipes come from the world's foremost meat kitchens; compiled by distinguished experts whose goal was to include every meat dish and meat "accessory" of proven merit. The recipes are set in large type. They accurately show the yield, cooking times, ingredients, and measures. Procedures are easy to follow, interesting and clearly stated. Except in two or three very special cases, all recipes can be used without turning a page to a "continued" part on the other side. This, too, was planned by experts—at no sacrifice of clarity or completeness.

Meat buying is a most important factor. Meat does not come in "uniform packages," like many other products. Therefore, much attention is given to the art of selecting a good cut of meat for each purpose and price. Storing and serving fresh or frozen meats are treated in the discussion of each recipe—"keyed" with devices that are easy to find and apply to the particular need. Such important subjects as stuffing, carving, gravy making, and outdoor cookery are described and illustrated. This is a "picture" age. Therefore, photographs and drawings show methods, special details, and displays of cooked foods at their best.

MENGE, J. W., and FAUNCE, R. C. *Working Together for Better Schools*. New York 3: American Book Co. 1953. 160 pp. \$2. This is a book that teachers and administrators will want to read and to distribute among parents and community leaders. It is especially timely in that it shows how wider community participation is an effective force in meeting current unjustified attacks on our schools. The authors describe how to arouse the interest of the general public in the schools and how to implement citizens' participation in planning the public school curriculum and activities. Every practice cited has been tried out successfully in one or more schools. With a positive approach, the authors point to the strength that comes from the use of democratic principles in the school-community relationship. The volume is a handbook for school-community planning. It is an attempt to record the purposes and the techniques of co-operative planning for better schools.

MONSARRAT, NICHOLAS. *Depends What You Mean By Love*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1954. 176 pp. 25c, pocket edition. The author of *The Cruel Sea* writes three short novels: "H.M.S. Marlborough Will Enter Port," "Leave Cancelled," and "Heavy Rescue."

MORRISON, LILLIAN, compiler. *Black Within and Red Without*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 128 pp. \$2. This is a collection of riddles about the sky, animals, and things that grow. These riddles have been collected by the compiler during the years she has worked with young people in the New York Public Library. The book is illustrated by Jo Spier.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Proceedings of the Ninety-first Annual Meeting*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Association. 1953. 415 pp. \$3. This book is the proceedings of the NEA's ninety-first annual meeting held from June 28 to July 3, 1953, at Miami Beach, Florida. It includes the nine addresses given before the Representative Assembly; the minutes of the business meetings; a summary of the activities and achievements of the 28 departments of the NEA for the school year 1952-53; the financial report; the report of the Budget Committee; a summary of reports of committees, commissions, and councils; the charter, by-laws, and standing rules; a calendar of the annual meetings of the NEA; a list of officers and headquarters staff for 1952-53; a picture of the architects' drawing of the proposed new headquarters building; a list of the delegates to the thirty-second Representative Assembly; a necrology list; the story of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession; and an index.

NEWBIGIN, LESSLIE. *The Household of God*. New York: Friendship Press. 1954. 192 pp. \$2.75. This book discusses the question that the author regards as central in the present ecumenical debate: the nature of the Church itself. He thus describes the plan of the book: "The first chapter sketches the present context of the discussion and touches on the Biblical meaning of the word 'Church.' The next three chapters examine the three answers to the central question, which may be roughly characterized as Protestant, Catholic, and Pentecostal. The last two chapters argue that

the Church is only to be understood in a perspective which is at once eschatological and missionary, the perspective of the end of the world and the end of the earth."

OLSEN, O. R. *Two Eggs on My Plate*. New York: Rand McNally and Co. 1953. 365 pp. \$4.50. This is a true story of wartime espionage. For eighteen months during World War II, this young Norwegian played a desperate game of hide-and-seek with the Germans in his homeland while spying for the allies. Only twenty-one when Hitler's hordes swept into Norway, Olsen at once gave up all thought of personal safety to become active in the resistance movement. Here is the story of many of his almost unbelievable experiences as a spy.

OVERSTREET, HARRY and BONARO. *The Mind Alive*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co. 1954. 333 pp. \$3.75. What makes a sound personality? What are the characteristics we all need not only to cope with life's problem but also to enjoy its possibilities to the full? Emotional well-being, say the Overstreets, is not a mysterious gift of the gods. It is a gift of growth that can be understood and realized. This book describes the kind of obstacles that interfere with the effective exercise of our abilities. The authors show that, when these obstacles are recognized for what they are, they lose their power to cause anxiety and tension, and no longer block the healthy expression of our personalities. Step by step, we learn to accept ourselves as we are, turn our minds outward, handle life better, and be more alive in our responses to it.

PALEY, FRANK. *Rumble on the Docks*. New York: Crown Pub. 1953. 379 pp. \$3.75. This is the story of crime and violence on the Brooklyn waterfront. The author, with first-hand knowledge of both sides of the stories, relates many shocking and almost unbelievable incidents of encounter between the law and the gangs, as well as among gangs. Included also are stories of some of the great criminal trials of his time. There is a climax to every life.

PARKMAN, FRANCIS. *The Oregon Trail*. New York: Globe Book Co. 1953. 257 pp. \$1.96. This school edition of this famous classic has been prepared by A. L. Lazarus of the Santa Monica, California, City Schools. In addition to omitting scenes that are more or less repetitious, the editor has made the indirect narration direct and has rearranged the order of certain scenes so as to heighten narrative suspense. Although the book is reduced in size, nothing of importance from either the narrative or the historical point of view has been omitted. Each chapter has questions suggested to motivate discussion and stimulate the pupil's imagination and the re-examination of his prejudices.

PETERSSON, HANS. *Westward Ho with the Albatross*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 218 pp. \$4. The Albatross expedition led by the distinguished Swedish scientist, Hans Petersson, after a fifteen months' circum-navigation of the globe, was able to establish many facts and make important contributions in a variety of fields. In this book, the author presents a picture of the ports of call, of the people met, and of the interesting things seen.

PRATT, FLETCHER. *Stanton, Lincoln's Secretary of War*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co. 1953. 534 pp. \$5.95. He was known as "the terrible Stanton," the man of iron who solved all problems by inflexible logic and used a whip for a tongue. And he was the greatest figure in Lincoln's cabinet—the indispensable man. Stanton feared neither God nor man nor devil. He worked like a madman, white-hot with passion every moment; when he was offered a bad contract, he tore it to pieces and flung it in the face of the contractor; when a Congressman protested the arrest of a Copperhead, he cried in rage: "This is war, and war is violence! If I tap that little bell I can send you to a place where you will never hear the dogs bark, and by Heaven, I'll do it if you say another word!"

But he was one of the great war ministers of history. After he took office, for all the rest of that long war, no Union soldier wanted for food or ammunition or clothes by his fault, no Union general wanted for soldiers, and no army wanted for the best general who could be found. And before he was all this, Stanton was a lawyer whose cases have set some of the most important precedents in American law, and whose courtroom presence was an excitement. He was a devoted husband and father, a man of incontestable integrity and greatness of purpose. His greatest loyalty was to law and the Union, and through that to Lincoln, however much they differed. Yet the attacks on him in his own time and since have been vicious in the extreme.

PRIDEAUX, TOM. *World Theatre in Pictures*. New York: Greenberg, Publisher. 1953. 256 pp. (9" x 12"). \$7.50. Here are a collection of *Life* magazine's theatre pictures selected by *Life's* theatre editor. It is a complete pictorial history of world theatre from ancient ritual to modern Broadway. Every important period of the drama is covered by both pictures and text. This panorama of world theatre includes the restoration of comedies of Congreve and Farquhar, French drama from Moliere to Satre, Ibsen and Strindberg—all these works appear in these pages. Included with the text of the more than 130 famous plays of all times are more than 650 *Life* magazine photographs.

RAND, CLAYTON. *Stars in Their Eyes*. Gulfport, Miss.: Dixie Press. 1953. 284 pp. (8" x 11"), including 16 pages in full color, clothbound; gold leaf. \$10. This is the Sesquicentennial edition covering the 400 years of exciting history of Louisiana in the biographical review of the lives of 110 men and women who influenced its evolution—the Spanish explorers, French colonizers, and American settlers. The portraits of these 110 men and women, all done by hand (Artists, Constance Joan Naar and Harry Coughlin), with a 1,000 word biography of each, provide a comprehensive gallery of Louisiana's distinguished dead, covering every calling and every section of the state and country. This volume is also illustrated with sixteen pages in full color, including portraits of Thomas Jefferson, Napoleon, the Lafittes, and historic scenes and shrines. The jacket of the book is also in full four-color, with reproductions of famed portraits, including President Dwight Eisenhower.

This deluxe edition, with preface by John Chase, incorporates the 1953 Sesquicentennial program highlights, providing a permanent record of the celebration with a foreword of the international significance of the anniversary event by Charles Nutter. Of this book, one writer states: "... the curtain rises upon this galaxy of Louisiana's great, a proud people's richest heritage. Here are men and women with *Stars in Their Eyes* who dreamed, loved, and labored—men and women of heroism; authors, artists, educators, soldiers, sailors, statesmen, scientists, traders, businessmen, schemers, and scamps."

RICCIOTTI, GIUSEPPE. *Paul the Apostle*. Milwaukee 1, Minn.: Bruce Pub. Co., 400 N. Broadway. 1953. 552 pp. \$7.50. St. Paul is second only to Christ in importance to Christianity. Apostle to the Gentiles, first great Christian missionary and theologian, it was he who saw earliest the distinction between Judaism and the Gospel of Christ and so preached Christianity as a religion for all men as the completion of the Old Law and not just a part of it. Son of a Roman citizen, influenced in his education by Greek as well as Jewish culture, Paul was the ideal Apostle to bring Christianity to the Gentiles. His driving energy, his single-minded purpose, his magnificent organizational abilities, and his vision of the worldwide kingdom which Christ had founded in His Church, established his importance to the western world—and made him a favored subject of study and biographies—among which this ranks with the best. The author has not only written of Paul the man, but he has also placed him in his own time among the events and the social, cultural, and religious forces with which

he was surrounded. He devotes the first third of the book to historical and geographical background, surveying the Jewish-Hellenic influences in Paul's life, the cities he visited on his many journeys, and the type of opposition to Christianity which he received. He discusses also the later criticism by the Rationalists of Paul's person and his message, refuting the judgments of men like Renan, Strauss, and Loisy. In the latter two thirds of the book the author presents the biography of Paul and an analysis of the various Epistles as they occur in the narrative. This personal analysis placed Paul and his writings in the proper perspective, removing obscurity and building up a background of events, emotions, and conditions that help us understand the Epistles and St. Paul better.

ROSS, EMORY, and PHILLIPS, GENE. *New Hearts—New Faces*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1954. 134 pp. \$2.00, cloth bound; \$1.25, paper bound. This is the story of past dread and present hope in the fight against leprosy, sometimes called Hansen's Disease. The authors have illustrated it with personality sketches that show in human terms the meaning of progress in this field. They show how love and skill have combined to prove that the old belief in leprosy's swift contagion was a superstition to crack its incurability, to make its terrible crippings yield to treatment and surgery. Despite this, even today, leprosy holds in pitiful bondage the greater part of 10 million men, women, and children. This book is a history of one phase of medical missions. The authors are president and publicity director, respectively, of the American Leprosy Missions, Inc., founded in 1906. This organization works through missionaries of sixty denominations and other mission boards to maintain and aid 145 leprosy settlements, clinics, and hospitals in 32 countries of the world. It also attempts to dispel the unjust stigma attached to leprosy by educating the American public in regard to the nature of the disease and its treatment and cure.

ROY, R. L. *Apostles of Discord*. Boston: Beacon Press. 1953. 449 pp. \$3.75. The author presents an analysis of the various sects and movements within the Protestant Church that produce discord. The program and vitality of Protestantism is threatened today by organized malcontents who zealously seek to promote hate and disruption under the banner of the Christian faith. The author surveys, in a factual manner, many of the groups and individuals active in the current campaign of extremists to capture the Protestant mind. The author warns Americans, and Protestants in particular, of the ominous threat to Christian values and to democracy which these fringe groups represent. His book provides people with basic data for combatting these groups, and it is intended to challenge the irresponsible methods and shallow principles that characterize most of their activities.

SHELLABARGER, SAMUEL. *Lord Vanity*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1953. 467 pp. \$3.95. This story begins in the middle of the 18th century, in the atmosphere of elegance and extravagance, decorum and licentiousness that characterized the age. The year is 1757 and the place is luxurious Venice, where lords and ladies played at life and love in an endless round of pleasure. A host of colorful characters throng the pages of this novel. Here we see them in gilded Venice, in Paris, in the fashionable world of London and Bath, in America where Wolfe's armies are wresting Quebec from the French. Here are historical personages such as the Italian dramatist Goldoni, Beau Nash, and John Wesley. In the midst of all this gaiety and frivolity, thunder warns of an approaching storm. Secret societies were being formed, revolutionary ideas were gaining adherents, and religious reformers were paving the way for change. It all happens with the beginnings of the age of the Rights of Man.

SORENSEN, VIRGINIA. *Curious Missie*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 214 pp. \$2.75. Missie was a little girl who lived in the Georgia cotton country

and who asked more questions than her family and teacher together could answer. The little one-room school to which Missie went did have a few old books on a shelf labeled "Library," and once Missie had hoped that when she'd read them all she would know the answers to her questions. Then her teacher explained that until the county commissioners provided a library bookmobile, people like Missie who lived in the country would have a hard time finding the books they needed. Because of Missie's reputation for being "the little girl who asks questions," she was chosen to tell the commissioners how much the children needed a bookmobile. The people convinced the commissioners that what they needed—more than new roads or bridges or a rat-extermination campaign—was a bookmobile.

SPILLER, R. E.; THORP, WILLARD; JOHNSON, T. H.; and CANBY, H. S., editors. *Literary History of the United States*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1955. 1,478 pp. \$9.00. This volume was originally published in 1948 in three volumes (two of text and one of bibliography). The present one-volume edition contains all of the material, of the first two volumes of the original edition, an additional chapter of new material, and a specially prepared bibliography. Represented in this critical biographical and historical work are such outstanding authorities as Howard Mumford Jones, Carl Van Doren, Alexander Cowie, F. O. Sandburg, Wallace Stegner, Merle Curti, Henry Steele Commager, Malcolm Cowley, Joseph Wood Drutch, Allan Nevins, and Maxwell Geismar. Associate editors are Howard Mumford Jones, Dixon Wecter, and Stanley T. Williams.

This book tells the fascinating story of the rise of American civilization as expressed in its literature from the earliest accounts of the explorers to the classics of Melville, Whitman, Poe, and Emerson and from the laughter of the frontier of the powerful and mature drama, fiction, and poetry of the United States today. Forty-five of America's foremost literary scholars have assisted in the production of this volume. It is indexed for quick and easy use; it has a special new bibliography to enhance its utility for reference purposes. In this book one discovers the interaction of politics, economics, and religion with literary expression; watches the rise and fall of various literary dominations; and learns the effect of changing philosophies and scientific discoveries. One sees how, while new ideas from abroad were continually absorbed, currents typically American in their influence rolled back to Europe and the rest of the world until today American literature commands a leading position.

SPOONER, E. B. *Way Back When*. New York: Exposition Press. 1953. 118 pp. \$3. This book is more than just the story of our American furniture and furnishings; it also examines the fads, fancies, and customs of the average family during the last seventy years and tells of the astounding changes in our way of life since the introduction of electricity for light, power, and household appliances. Children, who have been brought up to take for granted many of the everyday things which were strange and wonderful to their forebears, will learn to understand both these things and their parents and grandparents better on reading this book. Older readers will enjoy some chuckles and smiles and the comfortable feeling of nostalgia for the days of their youth when they read of oil lamps, non-electric iceboxes, and whatnots.

STANBROUGH, O. W. *God's Miracle of Marriage*. Boston: Christopher Pub. House. 1954. 51 pp. \$2.00. A book on marital problems for those who want to think through them constructively.

STREET, JAMES. *The Civil War*. New York 16: Dial Press. 1953. 152 pp. \$3. The author relates many incidents about the war that are little known. He discusses its cause. He explains the strategy of the war. His story as he tells it makes our nation look mighty good at times, and mighty bad at others.

STURGIS, ALICE. *Learning Parliamentary Procedure*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 374 pp. \$4.00, text edition. This book has been designed to be used with the *Sturgis Standard Code of Parliamentary Procedure*, which is being adopted by many of the largest and best-known organizations in the country. The purpose of this new volume is to help those dealing in and learning about the subject to work together more effectively in organizations and to help organizations work more effectively in our democracy. The author explains and clarifies the principles of parliamentary procedure and discusses training in leadership and membership. Subject matter is approached through flexible principles rather than rigid and overly technical rules—this method being based on the idea that an understanding of principles enables the reader to use the rules without memorizing them. These subjects are covered: how to organize clubs, conduct meetings, preside or participate in discussions, hold conferences, work effectively in committees, and plan conventions. Parliamentary procedure is brought into line with the thousands of court decisions involving organizations and their procedures. Treatment is practical, up to date, and simple. Viewpoint is modern and in line with the trends of twentieth-century organization. The chapters on *motions* are in outline form. Humorous verses and cartoons point out important facts and a complete set of definitions of all parliamentary items is included. Experiences in solving actual meeting situations are given. Questions on practical meeting problems, discussion topics, and examples from meetings of diverse organizations follow each chapter. Projects for individual work and for class co-operative work are supplied.

TERRES, J. K. *Songbirds in Your Garden*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 288 pp. \$3.95. This book contains information about making friends with the birds. It covers all the species of small birds in all sections of the United States. It is filled with anecdotes and stories of wild life. It tells how to attract songsters by the hundreds in your garden. The author tells how to feed the birds, what to feed them, and how to prepare the food. He not only discusses birdhouses and feeding stations, but he also explains how they are made, giving many plans and diagrams for different kinds of birds. He tells how to attract birds by giving plans for planting ornamental shrubs—shrubs to plant to attract, provide food, shelter, and protect the birds. There are even instructions as to how to maintain the bird bath outdoors during the winter season.

TOYNBEE, A. J. *Greek Civilization and Character*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 160 pp. 35c, pocket edition. This selection, from the writings of outstanding Greek historians explores many of the ideas and ideals of their civilization. An introduction to the history of the ancient work.

TURNER, E. S. *The Shocking History of Advertising*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 351 pp. \$4.50. This is a book on advertising in America and England which will be enjoyed not only by the advertising fraternity but also by the intelligent reader who wishes to be informed as well as entertained. The author's purpose is not to besmirch this necessary adjunct to our modern economy but to show the social customs and origins from the 17th century to the present which are responsible for the good in advertising as well as the ludicrous, the sound as well as the wildly extravagant. From the early advertisements of bullbaiting and curing of the pox, the author takes the reader through the fascinating age of the Coffee House journals with their advertisements of everything from houses of assignation to pretty slaves, lottery tickets, and the latest best seller. With the 19th century the spotlight shifts to America and the rise of modern methods—P. T. Barnum, the war between Hearst and Bennett over the house of assignation advertisements, the rise of the soap manufacturers, and then

the beginning of the modern era—Eastman with his \$5 camera—and advertising that embraced all forms and media from skywriting to television.

TUTTON, DIANA. *Guard Your Daughters*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1953. 250 pp. \$3.50. This book, the author's first novel, is a witty, lighthearted story about a family with five daughters (Pandora, Thisbe, Morgan, Cressida, and Teresa) whose odd upbringing causes them to react in highly individual ways to the daily happenings in their lives. The father, a kind, intelligent man, a successful writer of detective stories, tends to be absent-minded about his daughters. The family scene is dominated by the strange character of the beautiful mother, whose oddities emerge as the story unfolds, leading to a dramatic and nearly tragic climax. Despite this "close call," most of the novel is pure comedy.

VAN DEUSEN, G. G. *Horace Greeley: Nineteenth-Century Crusader*. Philadelphia: Univ. of Penna. Press. 1953. 457 pp. \$5. The baby was born on a barren New England farm. The child was strangely large of head, morose. The man was erratic, crotchety—yet warm-hearted, and idealist, a master with his pen. He was Horace Greeley, founder of the *New York Tribune*, a greatest editor of the age. Hungry liberal, ambitious reformer, this paradoxical man wielded in his lifetime an influence so enormous America has never shaken it.

Long before he died Greeley was a legend, baby-faced hero of a thousand tales. Every American knew about Old White Coat, the man who shambled when he walked, cursed and sang in a high falsetto, always forgot to tuck his trousers in his boots, berated slaveowners, disliked Lincoln, and had a mighty, never-to-be-fulfilled passion for office-holding. Even today his name is a household word. Greeley waged his battle against a spectacular backdrop. New York City was not only the scene of his triumphs—it was also the symbol of the forces with which he struggled and became eventually the victim. Like the colorful editor himself, New York in the nineteenth century was a composite of strengths and weaknesses. "Baseness and greatness it knew, and its restless dynamic spewed out both shoddy values and deeply genuine achievements. Superbly wasteful, superbly confident—the great city stood as a sign and symbol of American civilization." Against this background the man's life stands out in clear and bold detail.

VILLIERS, ALAN. *The Way of a Ship*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1953. 445 pp. \$6.50. This book is, in a sense, the consummation of the author's whole life's work. Here he has written the story of the Cape Horners, those magnificent square-rigged vessels which, as late as the 1930's, still beat round the storm-ridden tip of South America with their loads of grain and nitrate. The author, a sailor himself, begins with a general discussion of the Cape Horn ship; then he describes the technicalities of sailing her, how she was rigged, how sailors and officers were recruited, her economics, performance, and navigation. There are histories of outstanding ships such as the famous *Cutty Sark* and the great *Flying "P"* line, and of outstanding officers such as Robert Hilgendorf, the "Devil of Hamburg," Boye Petersen, Nissen, Learmont, and Woodget. There is a final chapter on the state of sail today all over the world.

VLIET, R. G. *Sand Is the Tool*. New York 1: William-Frederick Press. 1953. 31 pp. \$2.00. Twelve poems with the sense of a provocative inquiry combining a lyric gift with a philosophic penetration that transcends manifold experiences into striking poetry.

VOSS, C. H., editor. *The Universal God*. Cleveland: World Publishing Co. 1953. 335 pp. \$5. Here are writings that have preserved and strengthened the finest in the religious tradition of the West; and also rich literary veins of the Eastern tradition. Here are parallel treasures of the spirit bequeathed to our generation and a hundred

preceding by Athens, Jerusalem, Geneva, and Rome; and also the myriad fonts of the Oriental faiths. This volume contains hundreds of selections from the writings of such widely disparate seekers after God as Platonists and Aristotelians; Augustinians and Thomists; followers of Pascal and Plotinus, Kant and Kierkegaard; Jesuits and Jansenists; Calvinists and Lutherans; high churchmen and low churchmen; mystics and rationalists; sages of Judaism, both Psalmist and Hassidic, Orthodox and Conservative, Reformed and Reconstructionist.

WALKER, R. A., and CAVE, F. A. *How California Is Governed*. New York 19: Dryden Press, 31 W. 54th St. 1953. 263 pp. \$1.95. Discussion is related specifically to the many problems with which the state government is struggling, by-product of its rapid growth. For it, like many other states, threatens constantly to outgrow its schools, its highways, its water supply, its police facilities, and many other of the public services that sustain its people in peace, health, and comfort. Part II describes the procedures by which laws are made and carried out; it demonstrates to the pupil, moreover, the role that the citizen has to play in determining the policies of his state government. It is not simply a description of the procedures by which laws are passed and enforced. An effort is made to show these as part of the great game of politics. They emphasize that politics is the very heart and blood stream of democratic government, that it sometimes is shady and corrupt, but that it can be good and, therefore, is essential. A selected bibliography is provided for each of the thirteen chapters of the book; also, an 11-page index.

WARD, B. H., editor and publisher. *Flight, A Pictorial History of Aviation*. Los Angeles 25, Calif.: Year, Inc., 11833 Wilshire Blvd. (Also Simon and Schuster, New York) 1953. 192 pp. (10 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 14"). \$10. This is the second volume in the series of single-subject pictorial history books by the editors of *Year*, the annual picture history. This first volume in the series was *Pictorial History of the Bible and Christianity and All the World's Great Religions*. Forthcoming volumes will include *Pictorial History of America and Pictorial History of the World*. A companion volume is *Fifty Turbulent Years* (the pictorial story of the last half century); the base book of *Year's* pictorial news annual volumes which each year cover all the world, national, and American scene events in 1,000 pictures and 75,000 words. *Flight* is a fascinating collection of actual news pictures of the dramatic milestones in aviation history. It includes candid photographs of colorful personalities whose heroic exploits have thrilled the world. This book of 1,300 pictures and 75,000 words commemorates the 50th anniversary of powered flight.

More than two score of aeronautical experts have collaborated in a search of scientific and historical documents from all parts of the world to compile the most accurate and up-to-date pictorial history of aviation for publication. Each section covering an important period of air development is prefaced by statements from key aviation pioneers and leaders. As a result this book tells the story of man's conquest of the air—from the earliest dreams of flight, to the jet planes of today, and the rocket and space ships of the future—from Icarus to the early balloonists, from Leonardo da Vinci's winged machines that never left the ground to Count Von Zeppelin's great airships, from Louis Bleriot's monoplane to transatlantic passenger ships. Here is an exciting story in pictures and words—facts, inside stories, personalities. The development of commercial aviation is told as well as the heroic personal stories of the long-distance pioneers like Lindbergh, Byrd, and Amelia Earhart. Here are presentations of such memorable events as the court martial of General Billy Mitchell, the exploits of "Wrong Way" Corrigan, the air blitz of London, the results of the Japanese kamikaze suicide planes, and the B-29 delivery of an atomic bomb to Hiroshima. While this book is encyclopedic in its cover-

age, it is above all rich in anecdote and human interest. For the story of aviation is, in essence, the story of men of courage, vision, and faith—men who dared to cut their earthly bonds, often with only danger and loneliness as their reward.

WARD, B. H., editor. *Year, Your Lifetime in Pictures*. Los Angeles 25, Calif.: Year, Inc., 11833 Wilshire Blvd. (Also Simon and Schuster, New York) 1953. 208 pp. (10 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 14"). \$10. This 1953 edition of *Year* is the sixth in a series of pictorial books designed to give in each annual volume a record of world and national news events and personalities of a 12-month period. Since inception, this series has endeavored to provide its readers with a balanced presentation of current history in pictures and texts. To increase the interest and reference value of the 1953 edition, the editors have delved through more than 75,000 news photographs to select the better than 1,000 pictures and cartoons appearing in this book.

Special features subjects have been added, such as the terrorizing of Kenya by the Mau Maus, the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II, a panoramic view of the 300-year history of New York City, three-dimensional and foreign movies, and a pictorial biography of Stalin. The volume also contains pictures of aviation highlights during the last fifty years in commemoration of the Wright Brothers' memorable first flight. Many sections have been enlarged over previous editions in order to give increased coverage of subjects, including fashion, movies, religion, Great Britain, Canada, Africa, Brazil, and Mexico. This volume of more than 1,000 pictures and over 75,000 words presents an extremely interesting chronology of eventful days. It contains an index that is detailed and cross-referenced and a foreword by Henry Ford II.

WEAVER, E. C., and FOSTER, L. S. *Chemistry for Our Times*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1954. 672 pp. \$4.12. The authors of this book have completely revised the book as published in 1947. They have organized subject content into ten units or a total of 40 chapters. Each unit presents a short over-view or introduction to the area under consideration. Each chapter has a series of questions following each section within the chapter, a summary, and a series of questions covering the entire chapter. An appendix contains information on the metric system, on temperature measurements, tables, a glossary of terms, and an index. The names of the ten units are: Our Chemical Times, Our Environment, Chemistry's Business Office, Dispersions of Matter, Chemistry of the Earth's Crust, Chemical Industries, The Metals, Chemistry of Carbon Compounds, Chemistry and Human Needs, and New Directions in Chemistry.

WEINSTOCK, HERBERT. *Music As an Art*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 346 pp. \$6.50. Conscious listening is the first concern of the well-known music commentator and historian, Herbert Weinstock, in this new history of music. Dealing solely with the changes that have evolved in the structure of music, from Gregorian Chant to the atonal scores of our own day, this book offers analyses of "what it is that a composer has meant to do and has done." The author deals with the music itself. The earliest compositions likely to be heard in actual or recorded performance serve as a starting point for analysis of those procedures that shaped the art of music. And from this point technical and formal knowledge is extended for the reader as the living art acquired its various forms.

WILLIAMS, H. F., JR. *Your Career Opportunities in Evansville Industry*. Evansville, Ind.: The Evansville Manufacturers and Employers Assn., 119 Locust St. 1953. 192 pp. (9" x 12"). \$3. For the first time, Evansville high-school pupils will have at their fingertips specific information on key job opportunities that exist in local industry. The pupils may determine, easily and accurately, what subjects and training they need to prepare themselves for these key jobs. The book outlines the duties involved in these jobs, pleasant or unpleasant. And for pupils who may serve in the

armed forces and thereby have a special interest in opportunities there, an index in the book relates key jobs in Evansville industry to similar jobs in the army, navy, air force, or marine corps. Special tables guide pupils in requesting military schooling and will enable veterans to apply their military training to industrial jobs after discharge.

The book is based on Evansville's community-wide survey of key industrial jobs. It represents the most detailed research and compilation of material ever attempted for the benefit of the high-school pupils and community welfare of any city. It stresses in its summary that there is no future in this nation for the unskilled and limited future for the semi-skilled because more and more machines are taking over the efforts of these two groups. It points out that in 1900, eleven million common laborers were needed in the United States. In 1950, with population tripled, only six million common laborers were required as the factor of "automacity" (fully automatic production) was developed.

The first chapter, "Choosing Your Career," contains these guideposts: How To Use This Book; Analyzing Your Areas of Ability and Interest; Measuring Your Choice; Fixing Your Goal; What Kind of Education; and the Facts of Industrial Life. Each of the following chapters is devoted to a particular industry or phase of industrial services, as follow: wood products, metal products, textile products, chemical products, food products, printing, utilities, maintenance, clerical jobs, professional and technical jobs, and management jobs. The individual chapters are carefully assembled to give the pupil a complete picture of that industry in Evansville. On wood products, for example, the book points out that wood-working was the first industry in that area, with the Polk Brothers opening a factory in 1837 next to the site of the present Hotel McCurdy. Next is explained to the pupil the probable future of the industry under discussion and how hazardous jobs in that industry may be.

Then comes a detailed breakdown on occupations in the industry. It is not a mere listing of jobs. Duties of each occupation are carefully explained. In wood products, for examples, "there is a world of difference between a band saw man in a furniture factory and the bank sawer in a lumber manufacturing plant." It explains what each does and what helpers do. There is even a description of wood specialty occupations. Concluding the chapter is a two-page index of wood-working jobs in the armed forces. Each chapter follows the same general pattern. Not only is the book designed throughout to aid the pupil in "finding himself" but approaches are also set up in the first chapter to aid him in reasoning out the proper approach to the job problem. In easy, conversational style, the pupil is told that "you can use this book more effectively if you understand how it is designed As a rule, the facts about the jobs are written in this order: What the worker does; that is, what are his duties? What kind of qualifications does it take to succeed at this job? Is special training or other education required beyond the high-school level? What does the job pay in terms of advancement, relative pay, and satisfaction? A study plan is set up so that the pupil will get the most out of the opportunities that may be available. Importance to the pupil of self-analysis is stressed repeatedly. Pupils are told they should take inventory of themselves and the questions for this inventory are in black and white. The book contains 106 pictures designed to assist pupils in understanding types of work which may appeal to them. Production of the book, from cover to cover, was done locally and financed by 59 local companies.

H. F. Williams, Jr., association public relations director, compiled the book with the aid of the staff and 91 other persons. The work started almost from scratch and involved innumerable problems. To start the ball rolling, 30 industrial concerns were chosen as "pilot plants." Interviewers went to the managers of these plants for job titles and descriptions. Questionnaires were sent then to the city's 200 industrial plants,

requesting plant managers to analyze job descriptions so that each might be localized and any variations noted. Detailed plans were checked by the educational activities committee. Before each chapter was printed the manuscript was submitted to the public school editorial board and to a technical committee of authorities on personnel matters. The manufacturers contributed 7,500 copies to the schools, one for each student plus 500 to be used as part of the permanent classroom libraries of the social science departments. These 500 copies will be used as a textbook for freshmen in a ten-week course.

WILSON, J. D., editor. *Richard III*. New York: Cambridge Univ. Press. 1954. 345 pp. \$2.75. This is an edited edition of Shakespeare's *Richard III*. The introduction has sections on the text and its date, the source used, his style, and the character and plot of the play. Included also is a detailed stage history, a long note on *The Copy for Richard III, 1597 and 1623*, nearly 100 pages of notes, a glossary, and a geneological table. The play itself covers 139 pages.

WILSON, R. R. *Lincoln in Caricature*. New York: Horizon Press. 1953. 351 pp. (8" x 10"). \$6.50. This is a collection of the caricatures and cartoons of the eventful 1860's, giving new insights into the era of Lincoln and his contemporaries. These, together with the author's texts, show that our sixteenth president was perhaps the most hated in this nation's recorded history. It also shows how much of the press took up his cause and why historians have attributed historic changes to the cartoonist's art. However, from our present prospective in time, we see this humorous, melancholy, wise man as a towering figure in American history whose position is permanent beyond challenge.

Lincoln's political contemporaries, second in interest only to the chief actor in the great national drama, appear frequently in the pages of this book. Among these men are: Douglas, Buchanan, Greeley, Seward, Stanton, Breckenridge, Davis, Grant, McCellan, Burnside, and a host of others, alive with the immediacy of passionate conflict. The noted Lincoln authority, Rufus Rockwell Wilson, has written the accounts of each picture, giving its historical background in detail and weaving into his commentary a great variety of stories and anecdotes. Included also is an introduction by R. Gerald McMurty, head of the Department of Lincolnian at Lincoln Memorial University. Dr. McMurty is reputed as the only professor who teaches a full-year course on Abraham Lincoln offered in any American college.

YBARRA, T. R. *Caruso, The Man of Naples and the Voice of Gold*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 315 pp. \$4.50. This is the story of the life of Caruso. It took fifteen years of labor and disappointment to make his way from the back streets of Naples to the stage in New York's Metropolitan Opera House. As a youth, the eighteenth son of an impoverished Neapolitan family, he worked in a machine shop by day and studied singing at night. Caruso first sang in New York City on November 23, 1903. In a short time he became famous. He made fabulous sums of money, amounting to as much as \$15,000 for a single performance. His great career ended in 1920, when he was stricken, while singing, with a hemorrhage in his throat. He died a year later mourned by countless thousands of people throughout the world.

YODER, S. C. *Eastward to the Sun*. Scottsdale, Penna.: Mennonite Publishing House. 1953. 233 pp. \$2.85. This is Dr. Yoder's story of his travels through England, Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Holland, and to India for the 50th anniversary celebration.

Besides a travelogue, Dr. Yoder has made this book replete with historical glimpses, Biblical allusions, and the homely philosophy of a long-term minister and educator. He

intersperses his narrative with human interest, keen observation, and humor tinged by his American western background.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Announcements, the Home-Study Department. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 1953. 47 pp. Describes the University of Chicago's home-study programs. How to enroll. Lists and describes the courses available.

BARROWS, R. L. *Verses for Everybody*. La Plata, Md.: The author, P. O. Box 264. 1953. 52 pp. A group of 47 poems that cover a wide range of areas that, as a result, will interest many readers.

BRISTOW, W. H., editor. *Proceedings of the 4th Annual Conference Charting Our Program in New York State*. New York 19: W. H. Bristow, Yearbook Editor, Curriculum Center, 130 W. 55th St. 1953. 28 pp. \$1.00. Gives, in brief form, the gist of these meetings. Contains addresses and workshop reports of ASCD, business meeting reports and resolutions of the state group, plus a listing of the conference participants.

BUTTER, K. B. *Headline Design*. Mendota, Ill.: Butter Typo-Design Research Center. 1954. 96 pp. (8½" x 11") \$3.75. This is number two in a series of illustrated handbooks aimed to help the editor in his work. It suggests many ideas and techniques which will enable the editor or layout man to improve his product. Handbook number one dealt with effective illustration. This one discusses the role of the headline in publication layout. Each handbook in the series will discuss various layout "tool" or page elements which combine to make the complete printed page.

CANT, GILBERT. *Medical Research May Save Your Life!* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee. 1953. 32 pp. 25c. With the development of a new vaccine for polio, scientific man has fought his way to the crest of the ridge in his war on infectious diseases. Medical research is now in a position to launch a new campaign against the disabling and crippling ailments such as heart disease, cancer, mental illness, and rheumatism. This pamphlet tells about the great possibilities that lie ahead.

CARR, W. G. *Report of the Executive Secretary to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1953. 46 pp. His report as given in Miami Beach, Florida, on June 29, 1953.

Censorship and Controversy. Chicago 20: National Council of Teachers of English, 8110 South Halsted St. 1953. 56 pp. 75c. An analysis of the situations as they confront teachers in the schools and colleges.

Colonial Williamsburg. Williamsburg, Va.: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc. 1953. 48 pp. The first annual report of the president of the Board of Trustees. Illustrated.

Come Teach in Redlands! Redlands, Calif.: Supt. of Schools, Administration Bldg. 1953. 12 pp. A new and novel method of interesting qualified teachers to consider a community as a place in which to teach.

Conclusions and Recommendations of the International Development Advisory Board. Washington 25, D. C.: Foreign Operations Administration, Office of Public Reports. 1953. 27 pp. A report on United States' participation in technical co-operation programs for undeveloped countries.

DANGERFIELD, ROYDEN. *The New Japan*. New York 17: Foreign Policy Assn., 345 E. 46th St. 1953. 64 pp. 35c. Summarizes the history of Japan from its

settlement by prehistoric immigrants to the end of World War II, and analyzes conditions and problems of the occupation period.

DEERING, E. R., compiler. *Handbook on Attendance Accounting in California Public Schools*. Sacramento: Calif. State Dept. of Education. 1953. 116 pp. Aids for administrators and supervisors in achieving a uniform and objective interpretation of the requirements of the state law, the State Board of Education, and the State Dept. of Education affecting public school attendance.

Driver Education Program, 1952-53. Dover: Delaware State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1953. 16 pp. An annual report showing the development and operation of the program.

DULLES, J. F. 1954—*A Year for Decision*. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of State. 1953. 12 pp. Free. An address of the Secretary of State before the National Press Club in Washington, D. C., on December 22, 1953.

Economic Education, A New Objective for a Tri-State Team. New York 22: Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Ave. 1953. 24 pp. A description of a project entered into by the Tri-State Area Council on Economic Education.

Economic Status of Teachers in 1953-54. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Assn. 1953. (Dec.) 32 pp. 25c. The NEA Research Division brings together in this report a number of tables and charts to answer questions on the economic status of the teaching profession. It presents the latest figures on consumer prices, purchasing power of the dollar, teachers' salaries, earnings of other economic groups, and the impact of Federal income taxes.

Educational Motion Pictures, Fall, 1953, Supplement. Bloomington: Indiana Univ., Audio-Visual Center, Div. of Adult Education and Public Services. 1953. 63 pp. An annotated bibliography of 327 of the Audio-Visual Center's 4,000 film titles; explains its training program and describes its research program.

8 to 18. Toronto 4, Ontario, Canada: National Council of YMCA's of Canada, 15 Spadina Road. 1953. 196 pp. \$3.00 (8½" x 11", spiral binding). A graded and progressive outline of physical education which has proved effective in working with boys between eight and eighteen; used by the YMCA.

EISENHOWER, M. S. *Report to the President—United States-Latin American Relations*. Washington 25, D. C.: Syst. of Documents. 1953. 26 pp. 15c. Discusses the importance of these relations, what was found, and what should be done to strengthen the traditional bonds of friendship between the United States and the nations of Latin America.

Engineering, a Creative Profession. New York 18: Engineers Council for Professional Development, 29 W. 39th St. 1953. 32 pp. 25c. A guidance pamphlet for high-school pupils. Illustrated.

The English Record. Vol. IV, No. 1. Binghamton, N. Y.: English Council, 16 St. John Ave. 1953. 44 pp. The annual conference report held in Syracuse, New York, April 30-May 1, 1953.

Folk Dance Guide. New York 3: Paul Schwartz, Editor-Publisher, Box 342, Cooper Station. 1954. 16 pp. 50c. Contains an article on the folk dance in the United States, a national directory of instruction groups by states, and a selected bibliography of textbooks, current periodicals, and special articles.

GILMORE, LEE. *New Fountains*. New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway. 1953. 37 pp. (mimeo.) Free. This is a play for four characters complete with instructions for state setting, costumes, and production suggestions. A play for high-school pupils which relates to polio and prejudices. A royalty of \$2.50 is charged if the play is produced before an audience where an admission fee is charged. The material can only be used by living actors appearing in the immediate presence of their audiences and in those localities in which no branch of the American Theatre Wing Community Plays is functioning; i.e., any place except New York City and within a radius of fifty miles.

GLASSBERG, B. Y. *Know Yourself*. New York: Oxford Book Co. 1953. 76 pp. This pamphlet, one of the Oxford Life Guidance Series, arises out of the conviction that secondary-school classroom teachers can do much to lessen failure and unhappiness among pupils. Among the key topics included are the physiological background of thought and the emotions, the nature of the emotions themselves, the concepts of mental health, the process of growing up, and a consideration of the role of religion in a good life. The book is written as a study source for high-school pupils.

HAMLIN, H. M. *A Charter for a School-Sponsored System of Citizens' Committees*. Urbana: Office of Services, College of Education, Univ. of Illinois. 1953. 23 pp. 25c. Discusses procedures in securing lay participation in the development and formulation of educational policy in a community through school-initiated and school-sponsored citizens' committees.

HOPPER, R. L., editor. *Interdisciplinary Research in Educational Administration*. Lexington: Univ. of Kentucky, College of Education, Bureau of School Service. (Dec.) 1953. 56 pp. \$1.00. A report of the progress of a project to ascertain ways in which the resources of the University of Kentucky may be marshaled for the improvement of programs and services to school administrators.

HUTCHINS, C. D., and MUNSE, A. R. *Expenditures for Education at the Mid-century*. Washington 23, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 142 pp. (9" x 11½") 65c. This is the third report of its kind. This report contains data for the 1949-50 school year. This study is significant in that it adheres to the 10-year cycle and portrays the levels of support for educational services in the United States and outlying areas at the middle of the twentieth century. The study is based on 63,277 operating school districts of continental United States and on 125 units in outlying areas of the United States over and above the approximately 17,000 small districts which employ no teachers but send their pupils to schools in near-by districts. Includes tables and graphic presentations showing the expenditure levels for classroom units in the states.

Jet Horizons. Washington 6, D. C.: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St., N. W. 1953. 32 pp. The story of jet propulsion and its possible effect on the aviation industry of the future.

Jets. Washington 6, D. C.: NAEC Planning and Advisory Board, 1115 17th St., N. W. 1953. 32 pp. 1 to 24 copies, 50c each; 25-99 copies, 45c each; 100 or more copies, 35c each. Pictures with a minimum of text emphasizing the jet airplane and its contribution. Helps youth to live more intelligently by understanding the influence of this air age.

KOREY, E. L. *Be Dollar-Wise*. New York: Oxford Book Company. 1953. 80 pp. This publication is one of the Oxford Life Guidance Series pamphlets. It is composed of eight chapters which deal with various phases of consumer education and

places emphasis on various types of purchases and on intelligent attitudes and procedures rather than on specific products. Chapter titles are: What Is Your Consumer I.Q.? Ten Principles of Good Buying, Budgeting, Special Buying Problems, Consulting Experts (Governmental and Private Agencies), Savings and Insurance, and Investment and Home-Ownership.

Lighting for Better Living. New York 17: Better Light Better Sight Bureau, 420 Lexington Ave. A study program for teaching about light and sight in home-making classes. Included are: descriptive *Program Booklet* (8 pp.), teacher's *Source Book* (20 pp.), *Activities Book* (24 pp.) containing 9 demonstration projects, a set of 16 *Charts* that are 19" x 25" and mounted on an easel, and a set of 6 *Summary Sheets* for distribution to pupils, amplifying the information in the activities and charts.

Living With Light. New York 17: Better Light Better Sight Bureau, 420 Lexington Ave. A study program for teaching about light and sight in junior high-school science classes. Included are: *Teacher's Guide Book* (8 pp.), descriptive *Program Booklet* (8 pp.), set of 3 *filmstrips* with *scripts*, and 6 *Study Leaflets*, for distribution to pupils, reviewing the information in the film strips.

MARGOLIUS, SIDNEY, and LEWIS, D. S. *How To Save 24 Hours a Week.* New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 24 pp. 6c. Contains hundreds of housekeeping short cuts, dozens of illustrations of time-saving techniques and equipment, and scores of ideas for saving time.

MCREARY, W. H., and KITCH, D. E. *Now Hear Youth.* Sacramento: Calif. State Dept. of Education. 1953. 77 pp. A report of the California Co-operative Study of School Drop-outs and Graduates.

MEYER, A. E. *The Battle To Improve Public Education.* Washington 6, D. C.: The Horace Mann League of the U. S. A. 1953. 32 pp. This booklet is chapter 14 of the book, (385 pp., \$4) by Mrs. Meyer *Out of These Roots*, recently published by Little, Brown and Co.

The Most Unforgettable Character I've Met. New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 16 pp. 6c. Four authors describe Jim Dugan, Mary Bethune, Rex Beach, and Rose Hawthorne Lathrop.

MURRAY, JR., JAMES, moderator. *How Can Our Schools Best Promote Democracy?* New York 36: The Town Hall. 1953. 16 pp. 25c. Contains the speeches of Hollis Caswell and Robert Smith as well as the questions and answers as presented on America's Town Meeting of the Air by NBC on October 20, 1953.

The Nature of Human Relations Studies. New York 11: New York Univ., Center for Human Relations Studies, 157 W. 13th St. 1953. 16 pp. Attempts to state briefly a working definition of human relations studies and outlines of a program for training and research. Also includes "next steps."

The People Act: The Story of an Idea. New York 11: The People Act Associates, 157 W. 13th St. 1953. 24 pp. Free. Reviews the many-sided story of The People Act, a project of the Fund for Adult Education which terminated December 31, 1953.

Pooling Skills for Human Progress. New York: U. N. Dept. of Public Information. 1953. 36 pp. 15c. The why, what, and how of the U. N. technical assistance.

The President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1953. 84 pp. Single copies, free. Contains valuable and useful information relative to rehabilitation and employment of the physically handicapped

PUTNAM, R. A. *Achieving the Objective of Education*. Minneapolis 13: Minneapolis Public Schools. 1953. 23 pp. This is a guide to curriculum development to give each member of the school staff an instrument of self-appraisal by which to determine his own responsibilities in helping pupils achieve the nine goals or objectives of education commonly accepted. Each of the nine objectives is analyzed from the point of view of the job-to-be-done if the goal is to be achieved. A supplement accompanies the publication, giving resources available for achieving each objective and the place in the school curriculum where a major responsibility for achieving each objective should be assumed.

Railroads at Work. Washington 6, D. C.: Assn. of American Railroads, Transportation Bldg. 1954. 40 pp. A picture book of the American railroads in action.

RUEBEL, R. F. *A Study of Teacher Supply and Demand in Wyoming, 1951-53*. Laramie: Univ. of Wyoming, College of Education. 1953. 178 pp. \$1.50. A study concerned with ascertaining not only numbers in teacher supply and demand in Wyoming but also the conditions which limit this supply and demand.

RUSSELL, W. F. *Should Your Child Be a Teacher*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1953. 8 pp. A pamphlet for parents to help them in answering this question.

Salary-Schedule Provisions or Salaries Paid in Degree-Granting Institution, 1952-53. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division of National Education Assn. (Dec.) 1953. 36 pp. 50c. Reports on terms and conditions under which salaries are determined and amount paid at the different levels of service.

SHAW, FREDERICK. *The American City*. New York: Oxford Book Co. 1953. 96 pp. This is one of the 18 pamphlets making up the Oxford Social Studies Series. This particular one presents the stories of municipal activities. It undertakes a critical examination of political forms and methods, but the main emphasis is on key municipal problems, such as housing, city planning, finances, and city services. There are also chapters on political parties and on "suburbanitis." The style, content, illustrations, and other features of this pamphlet have been designed to meet the needs of secondary-school classes.

SHOSTECK, ROBERT, director. *Directory of Professional Opportunities*. Washington 9, D. C.: Vocational Service Bureau, 1761 R St., N. W. 1954. 88 pp. 75c. This reference volume has been compiled as a guide to young people who are about to finish their professional or semi-professional training and are faced with the need for selecting a suitable city in which to make a start in their chosen occupations. Counselors and placement officers will find it useful as a tool in their work. Shown in this publication is the median family income in 1949 for almost 200 of the most populous cities and standard metropolitan areas, and the number of professional workers per 10,000 population for each of the 20 selected occupations in 1950. For each profession there is a summary of the laws of each state and territory regarding licensure and reciprocity.

The following professional and related occupations are reported upon in this directory: Accountants, Architects, Chiropodists, Chiropractors, Dental Hygienists, Dental Technicians, Dentists, Funeral Directors, Embalmers, Insurance Agents, Lawyers, Medical Technologists, Occupational Therapists, Optometrists, Osteopaths, Pharmacists, Physical Therapists, Physicians, Real Estate Agents, X-Ray Technicians, and Veterinarians.

SONNE, H. C., chairman. *Fundamentals of Labor Peace, A Final Report*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Assn., 1606 New Hampshire Ave., N. W. 1953.

128 pp. \$1.00. A survey of labor-management relations of firms and unions which have experienced successful and peaceful relations, in an effort to discover whether what makes peace in some companies can be transferred to others. This is the NPA Committee's final report based on a 7-year study of union-management relations in 30 firms in such industries as aircraft, chemicals, clothing, electrical goods, food processing, glass, machine tools, mining, pulp and paper, rubber, steel, and textiles, with plants in all regions of the country and Canada and England. On-the-spot investigations were made in 25 of the firms by highly qualified industrial relations experts.

STEWART, R. C., editor. *Handbook for School Custodians*. Dover: Delaware Dept. of Public Instruction. 1952. 36 pp. (mimeo.) Discusses qualifications, personal relationships, school building maintenance, and fire extinguishers.

The Story of Farm Chemicals. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. duPont de Nemours and Co. 1953. 32 pp. (9" x 12"). Pictures the dynamic force of technology, as the power which has impelled the most startling era of advancement in American agricultural history. Beyond this, it points to the practical approach, through research and improved knowledge of nature's processes, which can help solve the problem of feeding the world's millions. Illustrated.

TANNEYHILL ANN. *From School to Job*. New York 16: Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 E. 38th St. 1953. 32 pp. 25c. Describes the Florina Lasker Youth Opportunity Project and others to help minority groups secure employment.

Telling the Town About Industry. Evansville, Ind.: The Evansville Manufacturers, 119 Locust St. 1953. 16 pp. A five-year report on the community-wide activities of Evansville's 59 manufacturers. Included is a description of their 12-month project culminating in the publication of a guidance book for high-school pupils entitled *Your Career Opportunities in Evansville Industry* (192 pp., \$3).

Twenty-first (1953) Annual Report of the Engineers' Council for Professional Development. New York 18: Engineers' Council for Professional Development, 29-33 W. 39th St. 1953. 66 pp. Reports of various committees of the council.

UHL, ALEXANDER. *The Assault on the U. N.* Washington 6, D. C.: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 718 Jackson Pl., N. W. 1953. 36 pp. 25c. An exposé of the forces behind the attacks on the U. N.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA CURRICULUM LABORATORY. *Fire Prevention for Secondary Schools*. New York 1: International Assn. of Fire Chiefs, Hotel Martinique, Broadway at 32nd St. 1952. 64 pp. \$1.50. The book attempts to bring to the attention of each subject-matter teacher those areas and those activities which they might perform which have a definite bearing upon the problems of fire prevention.

UPDEGRAFF, R. R. *Be Thankful for Your Troubles*. New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 12 pp. 6c. Discusses six rules to follow to be successful.

URDANG, GEORGE. *Pharmacy's Part in Society*. Madison 6, Wis.: American Institute of the History of Pharmacy, 457 Chemistry Bldg. 1953. 94 pp. Free. This is a newly revised edition made available by the American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education as vocational guidance material. The book illuminates the content and meaning of the field of pharmacy from a historical point of view. The role of the pharmacist is portrayed in ten topical sections dealing with the contributions made by pharmacy to professional, scientific, and cultural fields of human endeavor.

WADE, W. W.; RIGGS, F. W.; and GARY, H. C. *Problems of East-West Settlement*. New York 17: Foreign Policy Assn., 345 E. 46th St. 1953. 64 pp. 35c. Discusses the issues in Europe and the Far East and the economic problems involved. Also contains a guide to the discussion of these issues and problems.

WATSON, FLETCHER, *et al.*, editors. *Critical Years Ahead in Science Teaching*. Andover, Mass.: Elbert C. Weaver, Phillips Academy. 1953. 48 pp. Free. Report of conference on nation-wide problems of science teaching in the secondary schools by 23 educators—a conference held at Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, July 15-Aug. 12, 1953.

WCOTP, *First Annual Report*. Washington 6, D. C.: World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. 1953. 53 pp. Free. This first annual report includes a summary of the proceedings of the Assembly of Delegates at Oxford, England, July 31 to August 4, 1953. Also included are sections on historical background, membership, attendance, reports of the executive committee and on constituent federations, representations at international conferences, and the constitution of the organization.

What Will You Do? Wilmington, Del.: Board of Education. 1953. 46 pp. (8½" x 11"). A booklet prepared for pupil use to assist them in finding the answers to the problems of choosing their life work. A series of letters from leaders in many fields of endeavor in which they give some idea of requirements in their work.

WINSHIP, LOREN. *The Development of Educational Dramatics and Its Status in Texas Secondary Schools*. Austin 12: The Texas Study of Secondary Education, Univ. of Texas, Dr. J. G. Umstattd, Co-ordinator. 1953. 62 pp. \$1.00. Discusses the educational theatre of the Greeks and Romans, the scholastic drama of the Jesuits, the English educational theatre, the college theatre in the United States, the educational theatre in the secondary schools of the United States, and reports on studies concerning the status of dramatics in high schools of Texas. Includes also a summary, suggestions, and a bibliography.

World Against Want. New York 27: International Documents Service, Columbia Univ. Press., 2960 Broadway. 1953. 80 pp. 50c. An account of the U. N. technical assistance program for economic development.

Your Rights—Under State and Local Fair Employment Practices Laws. New York 16: American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave. 1953. 24 pp. 7c. Discusses the various state and local laws and regulations. Also available from the same source are: *Don't Be Fooled!* 5c; *The Number One Question*, 3c; *Your Rights*, 7c; *Our Jewish Community Pattern and Its Critics*, 3c; *"Restricted" Area: Does It Pay?* 1c; and *Are You Raising a Bigot?* 2c.

ZIMAND, G. F. *Young Workers in the United States*. New York 16: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Ave. 1953. 20 pp. Discusses the school-age workers, where they work, their schooling, how long they work, and trends and problems; also outlines the Committee's role in 1952-53.

News Notes

TRAVEL EXPERIENCE AND THE MODERN TEACHER—Today few administrators question the importance of properly conceived and executed travel programs for improving the effectiveness of most teachers. Many administrators are encouraging such planned travel, and more teacher application blanks are including a space for travel experience. A great number of school systems grant credit toward salary increment and as evidence of in-service growth for participation in certain types of planned travel experience.

Perhaps the increased recognition of the value of travel since World War II is in part due to development of effective methods and programs in the educational travel field. Furthermore, our rapidly changing world has placed new demands on the school and the teacher. Our mobile population, our rapid world transportation, and communication systems have created an outlook less provincial and to a degree demanding broader experiences for its teachers if they are to maintain the desired prestige in the community. In a survey made among teachers, it was found that "added prestige in the community" ranked high as a reason for travel. Another prominent reason for the increased emphasis given to educational travel is due to the wider recognition of the fact that first-hand information obtained through properly planned travel experiences enables the teacher to present her material in a more interesting manner, creates greater enthusiasm in the teacher and students, and results in a more adaptable personality. The point concerning increased adaptability as a result of travel is shown in a recent major research project. The NEA Travel Division is utilizing recent findings and experiences as a means of developing a travel program which will make the greatest possible contribution to the professional and personal growth of teachers.

The Division's program for the summer of 1954 includes movements to Europe extending from Hammarfest, Norway, less than 20 degrees from the North Pole, to Rome, from Edinburg to Helsinki. It is introducing its first tour to the Holy Land and additional areas of the Near East. In the Western Hemisphere, the program includes much of Eastern and Western United States, Canada, Alaska, Hawaii, Mexico, Cuba, Guatemala, and South America. Seven institutions of higher learning are co-operating with the NEA Travel Division offering travel courses on certain of the above tours. Additional information may be secured by writing to the NEA Travel Division, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

AID TO EDUCATION—A fund of \$238,500 for grants to universities and colleges to advance the teaching of science has been made available by the Du Pont Company. This distinctly new part of the company's program of aid to education is the result of an experimental plan announced last year. Reports coming in from many of the institutions receiving Du Pont grants indicate that they have a special need of assistance in the development of science teaching. In recognition of this need, the company has now made advancement of teaching the largest single part of its aid-to-education program, which for many years has also provided grants for fundamental research and postgraduate fellowships. Under the whole program it has authorized a total of more than \$700,000 for the 1954-55 academic year as compared with \$600,000 for the present year. In the longer standing plans in the program, the company is granting \$230,000 for fundamental research and \$222,000 for postgraduate fellowships in science and engineering.

There are four separate plans in the new development: \$100,000 to advance the teaching of chemistry in colleges; \$73,000 for postgraduate teaching fellowships in chemistry;

\$25,500 for summer research grants for chemistry teachers in universities; and \$40,000 for fellowships for master's degree training of high-school science and mathematics teachers. As is the case with its long-standing program of fellowships and grants-in-aid, Du Pont is making the new awards to selected institutions and leaving decisions on detailed use of the funds up to them. Under the long-established program, the company is awarding 61 postgraduate fellowships in scientific fields, granting 26 in chemistry, 17 in chemical engineering, six in biochemistry, five in physics, four in mechanical engineering, and three in metallurgy. It also is continuing its grants-in-aid of \$15,000 each to ten universities and \$10,000 each to six universities. These grants are to build up knowledge through the support of unrestricted fundamental research in chemistry.

Details of each of the new plans, together with a list of the institutions receiving grants, can be secured by writing to: E. I. du Pont De Nemours and Company, Public Relations Dept., Wilmington 98, Delaware.

A NEW RADIO SERIES—A new dramatic radio series entitled *Decision!* had its premiere Monday evening, January 11, at 9:30-10:00 p.m., EST, as a weekly half-hour feature over the American Broadcasting Company network for thirteen weeks. It will dramatize man's present-day struggles to retain his freedom of choice and right to make his own decisions and guide his own destiny in a democratic world. The new series will adhere to the pattern established in past productions by the Institute for Democratic Education, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, New York, which emphasized human relations themes by avoiding "preachiness" but making its points through good story-telling. The Institute, in existence more than 15 years, produced the annual *Lest We Forget* series of radio dramas that were consistent award winners for public service and educational programming.

MORE TOP STUDENTS AND SCIENTIFIC TRAINING REQUIRED—The pressing need for the training of qualified students and teachers in scientific fields, especially chemistry, was emphasized at a meeting of a group of public school administrators, supervisors, and teachers of the Washington, D. C., area. Brought together at the Hotel Statler at the invitation of the National Science Teachers Association and the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, the educators reviewed the critical situation and studied ways and means to alleviate it. They witnessed two films on the subject. The first entitled *And To Fame Unknown*, a story of a day in the life of a science teacher, has been produced by E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company, Inc. The second, *Decision for Chemistry*, a Monsanto Chemical Company presentation, dramatizes the importance of instruction designed for students showing unusual talents for scientific careers.

CITIZENSHIP FOR AN ATOMIC AGE—A special supplement (Vol. 35, Sept. 1953, 20 pages) of *School Life* is available from the Supt. of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., at 15 cents per copy, with a 25 per cent discount on 100 or more copies to the same address. This supplement presents information on the atomic age by the Atomic Energy Commission and the Federal Civil Defense Administration. Articles included are "Living Without Fear in a Century of Continuing Crises"; "How a Small High School Meets the Challenge of the Atomic Age"; "The Atomic Age Moves Forward"; "Protective Citizenship—Its Educational Implications"; "What Schools Are Doing in Atomic Energy Education"; "What Schools Are Doing About Civil Defense"; "The School and Community Face the Atomic Age"; "Curriculum Adaptation to Changing Needs"; "Laboratory Practice in Protective Skills"; and "Atomic Energy and Civil Defense Teaching Aids."

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS RECORDINGS OF AMERICAN INDIAN MUSIC—The Library of Congress has released three new long-playing recordings containing music

of Indian tribes in Arizona, Washington, Wisconsin, and North Dakota. The original recordings were made in those states by Dr. Frances Densmore of Red Wing, Minn., who has devoted a lifetime to the preservation and study of American Indian music. The Library was able to make these long-playing recordings available for purchase as the result of a private grant for the preservation of Indian music from Mrs. E. P. Reese.

The tribes represented on the disks are the Papago, Nootka and Quileute, Menominee, Mandan, and Hadatsa. Each recording contains approximately 30 songs, including war and hunting songs, songs used in the treatment of the sick, dream songs, and songs of social dances. All the songs, recorded by Dr. Densmore early in the century, are now seldom, if ever, heard. Each disk is accompanied by a descriptive pamphlet that explains the historical background of the material recorded and contains English translations of the texts of the songs.

Because the original recordings were made in the field on a cylinder machine, the fidelity of the transcriptions cannot be compared with studio-made, electronic recordings, but the quality is high under the circumstances. These recordings bring to seven the number of long-playing disks of Indian music available from the Library. A total of 33 albums of folk music, including both 78- and 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ -rpm recordings, are for sale by the Recording Laboratory, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C. A catalog of the recordings available may be obtained for 10 cents in coin from the Recording Laboratory. The long-playing records are \$4.95 (Federal tax included) each, plus cost of mailing.

A WORKSHOP ON OUTDOOR EDUCATION—The School of Education of Michigan State College and the Division of Land and Water Conservation will offer a 3-week graduate credit course in education or conservation at the Clear Lake Camp, Dowling, Michigan (Highway 37—17 miles northeast of Battle Creek) from June 28 to July 16, 1954. Elementary- and secondary-school teachers, school administrators, college teachers, camp leaders, and others interested in outdoor education are eligible for enrollment. Included in the course will be consideration of the problems brought to the workshop by the participants; orientation on current developments in outdoor education combined with field experiences for an interpretation of the outdoors as a teaching environment; special emphasis on school camping with particular reference to the rapid developments in Michigan; a summer school children's camp running concurrently for clinical and demonstration activities; exploration trips to school camps, public recreation areas, forests, farms, sanctuaries, and other public land areas; and fellowship, and outdoor education. Participants will enroll and live at the camp where good food, lodging, and recreation will be available. The tuition fee will be \$30. For more information, write Julian W. Smith, Associate Professor of Outdoor Education, School of Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan.

INSTITUTE ON THE POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD AFFAIRS—One of the most interesting summer sessions ever planned, this 10th annual institute offers an unparalleled opportunity in the nation's capital, where world policy is being shaped, for teachers to obtain a wider understanding of the complex social, economic, and political problems facing the United States. Students will be associated with a stimulating, interesting group of people, with speakers of national and international prominence. Access to the embassies of foreign nations and visits to government buildings will be included. Literature is available that will prove of inestimable value to those in the teaching field. The sixth week of the Institute will be spent in New York City at the United Nations in order to secure a broader vision of world problems. Ample opportunity for sightseeing and recreation is provided to make this a memorable summer.

The American University is located on one of the highest, coolest sites in northwest Washington. It is accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and is a member of the Association of American Colleges, Association of Urban Universities, and Association of University Evening Colleges. The following tentative program has been arranged: Sunday, June 20—informal reception with guest of honor either a foreign diplomat or a prominent American. 1st week, June 21-25, 2nd week, June 28-July 2—Comprehensive study of the position of the United States in relation to the countries of Western Europe and the Americas; consideration of regional groups such as NATO and the Organization of American States. 3rd week, July 6-10—(Holiday on Monday, July 5)—Lectures Saturday, July 10) Topical approach to world affairs, with reference to atomic energy, military affairs, agriculture, industry, labor, world trade, religion, fine arts, transportation, communication, education, and health problems. 4th week, July 12-16—Position of the United States in relation to countries of eastern Europe, Asia, and the Pacific, and our relation to the USSR, Communist China, the situation in Korea, Indochina, and Malaya. 5th week, July 19-23—The formulation and implementation of foreign policy of the United States and America's place in the United Nations. 6th week, July 26-30—Session in New York at United Nations headquarters, working with U. S. delegation to the United Nations, the Foreign Policy Association, AAUN, and other agencies dealing with UN activities. Seminars: Two series of seminars are planned. Tuesday afternoon meetings, planned especially for teachers, will deal with methods of teaching the United States' position in world affairs. Thursday afternoon seminars will deal with the international scene.

The cost of the course is \$90 for six weeks and six credits or \$60 for four weeks and four credits plus room and board. For complete information write to: Dr. Samuel E. Burr, Jr., Director, Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs, The American University, Washington 16, D. C.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE—The Seventh Foreign Language Conference of the University of Kentucky will be held on the University campus, April 22-24, 1954, under the direction of Professor Jonah W. D. Skiles (Ancient Languages) with Professors Hobart Ryland (Romance Languages) and Paul E. Whittaker (Germanic Languages) as associate directors. In addition to the general session, there will be sections for Classical Languages, French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Spanish, Latin American Literature, Slavonic Languages, Biblical and Patristic Languages, Comparative Literature, Linguistics, High-School Teaching of Classical Languages, High-School Teaching of Modern Languages, Teaching of Languages in the Elementary School, Folklore, and International Relations.

The Sixth (1953) Conference drew an attendance of 610 persons from forty states and seven foreign countries. Thirty-four language areas, from Arabic to Vietnamese, were represented by individuals from 264 institutions. Lectures and papers to the number of 234 were offered in linguistic, literary, humane, social, historical, and pedagogical phases of thirty-two language areas. Those wishing programs or desiring to offer papers (for 1954 or in the future) should write to Professor Jonah W. D. Skiles, Director, Foreign Language Conference, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR TEACHERS OF SCIENCE—The Carnegie Institute of Technology will offer the fourth annual six-week program for secondary-school teachers of science during the summer of 1954. This program has been made possible through the generosity of the Westinghouse Educational Foundation, which is offering fellowships of \$250 each to teachers selected by the Carnegie Institute for participation in the

program. Full-time staff members of the College of Engineering and Science will have charge of the course, and college credit will be granted.

The aim of the program of study will be to stress the importance of fundamental concepts in chemistry, physics, and mathematics and to show the power of these fundamentals. There will be formal courses, informal discussions, and laboratory instruction in these fields. A survey of recent developments in the pure and applied sciences will include lectures by Carnegie research specialists on such topics as the cyclotron, radioactive tracer chemistry, applied mathematics, plastics and polymers, nuclear research, low temperature physics, petroleum, and explosives. Throughout the program, emphasis will be placed on teaching methods, in which the "Carnegie Plan of Professional Education, will be featured and discussed. The academic program will be supplemented by visits to many of the great industrial establishments of the Pittsburgh area and to Carnegie Institute of Technology's research and teaching laboratories.

The program will consist of a series of lectures and discussions in the mornings and of laboratory work or inspection trips in the afternoons. Registration for the program will take place during the morning of Monday, June 28, and classes will begin at 1:30 p.m. on that day. The program will extend through Friday, August 6. No Saturday sessions will be held. A tuition fee of \$50 will be charged for the program, payable at the time of registration. The school's recreational facilities, the dining facilities on the campus and the Carnegie dormitories will be available to the members of the program. Further information concerning this summer program for Teachers of Science is available from the Chairman of Admissions, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania.

CRUMBLING GHOST TOWNS THAT HELPED WIN THE WEST—The ghost towns of Nevada, weatherbeaten reminders of a vivid page in American history, are honored in a special film essay in the January issue of *The News Magazine of the Screen*. Produced by Warner Pathe News, *The News Magazine* combines a review of the month's news with significant feature stories. In this film, pupils are taken on a movie tour of Virginia City, Rhyolite, and Belmont. Once three of the nation's most spectacular mining towns, they played an important role in the winning of the West. More than \$900,000,000 worth of gold and silver was taken from Virginia City's famous Comstock Lode. A booming metropolis of 30,000 population during the 1870's, Virginia City is revealed by *News Magazine* cameras as a skeleton town today, inhabited by only 400 persons. But relics of the past are everywhere and merge into a dramatic photographic record. Pupils see the old shafts and an untapped vein of silver ore, valued at millions of dollars, but economically impractical to mine.

In Piper's Opera House, once the most famous theater of the West, faded posters on crumbling walls tell of the fine attractions that long ago graced its stage. In another building, a yellowed file of papers is a reminder of Nevada's first newspaper, *The Territorial Enterprise*. The desk used by Mark Twain, an *Enterprise* reporter, is still there. At Rhyolite, 400 miles south, *The News Magazine* shows the remains of another boom town. In five hectic years more than \$3,000,000 worth of precious metals was mined. From thousands of discarded bottles one ingenious pioneer built the "Bottle House." Its ruins silently tell of a riotous, freewheeling era. The Cosmopolitan Hotel and Music Hall is the only building standing in Belmont, a third ghost town. Other features of the film are: a news review of President Eisenhower's speech before the United Nations in which he presented his dramatic plan for international use of atomic materials; the Bermuda Big Three Conference; spectacular scenes of the wreckage in tornado-whipped Vicksburg, Miss.; a disastrous fire in Pusan—the worst in Korea's history; the latest pictures of the submarine Nautilus, the nation's first atomic-powered undersea craft scheduled to be

launched this year; a tense moment at Oslo, Norway, when Communist agitators interrupted the presentation of the Nobel Peace Prize to General George C. Marshall; and aviation developments reported in graphic pictures of the Douglas Skyrocket research plane streaking to a new world's speed record of 1,327 miles an hour, twice the speed of sound.

Pupils also see in this issue of *The News Magazine* the world's newest and fastest electronic calculator. Its mechanical brain multiplies and divides more than 2,000 times a second. It adds and subtracts 16,000 times a second and contains a "memory vault" to retain information on problems and instructions for solving them. From a "Mechanical Brain" in New York, *The News Magazine* turns to primitive tribesmen in Kerowagi, New Guinea. These natives take a big step toward civilization by learning to tend flocks of sheep which are flown to their valley by transport plane. Their jubilant celebration upon receiving the first gift of sheep is filmed, picturing the native dances and primitive songs. For them the sheep mean wool, meat, and a new industry. On the other side of the world, the camera inspects a vast hydro-electric project underway in Canada. On the Beauharnois Canal, Quebec, the world's largest pipeline dredge is seen clawing through 40,000,000 yards of clay to deepen the canal. Almost the entire flow of the St. Lawrence River will be diverted into the new, enlarged waterway.

For a story on miniature handicraft, *The News Magazine* has collected films of tiny models and works of arts from many parts of the world. A miniature railroad winds around an elaborate track layout in Italy; skilled craftsmen carve tiny chess sets and other works of art; a Los Angeles man demonstrates a model boat run on electricity supplied by the chemical action of sea water; and a skilled electrician shows (through a magnifying glass) the world's tiniest electric motor, which becomes an electric fan for a housefly. For complete information about the availability of these monthly film releases, write to: The News Magazine of the Screen, 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

1954 CONVENTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AUDIO-VISUAL INSTRUCTION—The Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of the National Education Association will hold its annual convention on March 2-5, 1954, in Morrison Hotel, Chicago, Illinois. General sessions present discussion on the following topics: A Communications Philosophy for Education, Current Trends in Education, Administering the AV Program, Freedom To Teach and To Learn, Systematic Instruction by TV, and Educational Uses of 3-D. Discussion groups will give attention to such subjects as: Communications Programs for Universities, Instructional Materials Centers for Schools, International Role of AV Specialists, "Readability" in AV Publications, Vitalizing State Associations, Preparation of AV Specialists, Research, Pre- and In-Service Teacher Education, and AV Directors' Responsibility for Educational TV. There will also be demonstrations of how to make AV effective in the classroom; exhibits of new materials, new equipment, and new ideas; and a number of field trips. For additional information write to the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

MANUSCRIPT GIVEN TO UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA—The New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York, has deposited the manuscript of the first "New World Writing" with the University of Florida, as part of their Collection of Creative Writings. "New World Writing" which is a volume containing new, previously unpublished, short writings, chosen for their literary merit, was first put out in 1951 and is the first of such collections to be compiled and published by a paperbound publisher. The manuscript consists of thirty-four short stories, articles, poems, pieces of criticism, and sections of novels by such writers as

Christopher Isherwood, Louis Auchincloss, Tennessee Williams, Shelby Foote, Gore Vidal, Robie Macauley, Charles J. Rolo, and others. It is the first in a series of semi-annual collections of original short writings published under the Mentor imprint by the New American Library beginning in the spring of 1951. The fifth volume of "New World Writing" will appear in April, 1954.

INFORMATION ON INCIPIENT MENTAL AND BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS OF YOUTH—The American Orthopsychiatric Association will hold its 31st Annual Meeting at the Hotel Commodore, New York City, on March 11, 12, 13, 1954. Approximately 90 scientific papers will be presented by psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, educators, sociologists, and anthropologists. One section will hold an all-day session on the subject of residential treatment centers for emotionally disturbed children. There will be eighteen case workshops, one and a half days of selected mental health film showings, demonstrations of psychodrama, and numerous technical and commercial exhibits. The American Orthopsychiatric Association, founded in 1924, is an inter-disciplinary association of psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, and members of allied fields, including education, anthropology, and sociology. Its members come from all parts of the United States and Canada, and from foreign nations. Inquiries about the program, reservations, exhibits, and other matters should be directed to Dr. Marion F. Langer, American Orthopsychiatric Association, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, New York.

A QUESTIONNAIRE TO PARENTS—The *Parent Questionnaire* developed by the Leadership Project of the CPEA at the University of Florida has been used with more than five thousand parents in Florida communities. Designed to help find out how different kinds of behavior of school principals influence school-community relations, the 65-item questionnaire attempts to find out how parents feel about the school, how they support it, how well informed they are about the school, how the community uses the school for community purposes, and additional information they desire about the school. A similar questionnaire has been developed to use with teachers to find out how they feel about, use, support, and learn about the community. The questions are simply worded, quickly answered, and can be hand tabulated or coded for IBM. A sampling technique is described in the manual which goes with the test which has been used to get returns in from 80 to 99 per cent of the sample. For most schools, a sample of 150 to 200 families is sufficiently large for dependable results.

In early returns parents voted overwhelmingly that pupils were learning things useful now and even more useful later on; that teachers were teaching the three R's either fairly well or very well; that they would pay somewhat more taxes for higher salaries and better buildings, but only a few indicated that they would take a substantial tax boost. Additional information was most often wanted on pupil progress. Most variable item was the school cafeteria which was highly praised in some schools, called poor by most parents in others. *Parent Questionnaires* may be secured from the Materials Diffusion Project College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, for seven cents each in quantity lots; a special set of one *Questionnaire* and an *Instruction Booklet* is available upon receipt of twenty cents in stamps or coin.

LABORATORY FOR GROUP DEVELOPMENT—The third western training laboratory in group development will be held at Idyllwild, California, between August 15 and 27, 1954. The laboratory is intended to provide understanding and skills for individuals who want to improve their effectiveness in working with groups. The laboratory group will be composed of participants with a variety of occupational backgrounds. The training staff will be made up of faculty members from various universities as well as from active

group leaders in business, government, industry, public health, education, social welfare, and the like. For complete information, write to the Department of Conferences and Special Activities, University Extension, University of California, Los Angeles 24, California.

AVIATION EDUCATION WORKSHOP—The Third National Aviation Education Workshop, sponsored jointly by the Civil Air Patrol, civilian auxiliary of the U. S. Air Force, and the University of Colorado, will begin July 22, 1954, it was announced by Major General Lucas V. Beau, USAF, National Commander of the Civil Air Patrol. The mile-high campus of the university at Boulder again will be the scene of the project designed to provide a foundation for teachers and instructors who are interested in giving courses in aviation education or integrating aviation education with courses already being taught in their respective schools.

While the majority of the teachers and Civil Air Patrol instructors who attend the workshop do so on scholarships given by their local CAP units, service or fraternal organizations, community concerns, and aviation interests, those who wish to attend at their own expense are welcome. The total cost for room, board, and tuition for the five-week summer session is \$160. Housing accommodations are available on the campus for married students with children as well as for both unmarried women and men. The Air Force will provide airlift to and from Boulder for all teachers who are CAP members or who are attending the workshop on CAP scholarships. The airlift, however, will be contingent upon Air Force transport commitments at that time. Four units of credit will be given for satisfactory completion of the workshop. Either graduate or undergraduate credit may be earned.

There are no special curricular prerequisites for the workshop. Any teacher who is certificated by the appropriate county, state, or other agency (one who holds a valid teaching certificate) may attend the workshop. The actual content will be such that advance technical knowledge will not be necessary as a prerequisite. The basic reference for the session will be the *CAP Aviation Study Manual* which is used today by more than 200 high schools in the country in their aviation education courses and by more than 48,000 CAP cadets in their training program. First-hand aviation experiences available to the participants will include actual aerial flight in both typical light personal aircraft and larger Air Force planes, model plane building, and field trips to civil and military aviation installations.

The workshop system for training teachers to instruct in aviation education has gained much headway since the first CAP National Aviation Education Workshop. In 1954 the national project will be supplemented by several others held in various parts of the nation. They will include Miami University, Ohio; Denver University, Colo.; Norwich University, Vt.; Long Beach State College, San Jose State College, and San Francisco State College, Calif.; the University of Montana; and the University of Puerto Rico. Norwich and the University of Puerto Rico also held workshops last year.

FEDERAL AID FOR SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION—Federal funds totalling more than \$7 million have been reserved to date by the U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, for 29 school construction projects in "Federally-affected" defense areas. The funds will be used to help local school districts in areas of Federal defense, military, and other activities provide the necessary classroom accommodation for the increased number of children enrolled because of nearby Federal projects. These new Federal fund reservations are the first to be made from funds authorized by the 83rd Congress under Public Law 246. This law amends and extends Public Law 815 under which since 1950 a total of \$341,000,000 has been allotted for 1,337 critically-needed

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school building projects throughout the nation. The 83rd Congress appropriated \$70,000,000 under Public Law 246 for the current fiscal year. These funds must be allotted on the basis of "relative urgency of need." The Office of Education already has received over 600 applications for Public Law 246 funds. The amounts requested total more than \$130,000,000.

The U. S. Commissioner of Education states that, in accordance with the provisions of Public Law 246, priorities for reservation of Federal funds by the Office of Education are determined by (1) the percentage of children in the school district who are "Federally connected," as defined in the Act, and (2) the percentage of children in the school district for whom no minimum standard school facilities exist. Federal funds certified for payment to local areas under Public Law 246 are restricted to the cost of providing only minimum facilities required for those children for whom such facilities are lacking. Furthermore, reservation of funds does not constitute final approval of a local project. Such approval is given when all technical requirements of the law have been met.

State departments of education have designated representatives to assist school districts in the preparation of applications for Federal funds authorized for reservation under Public Law 246. These representatives also work with applicants in developing construction project proposals. The Community Facilities Service, Housing and Home Finance Agency, reviews project applications as to their fiscal and engineering aspects, and has responsibility for supervision of the construction and engineering features of this program in accordance with the law.

STUDY ABROAD—To help American teachers gain first-hand knowledge of how contemporary Europe is working toward the solution of its general and educational problems, New York University's School of Education will conduct its fifth European Workshop during July and August of 1954. Organized on a graduate level, the workshop offers participants an opportunity to earn eight points of credit toward graduate degrees. The teachers will spend approximately three weeks in London, a week in Heidelberg, and several days in Paris. They will travel by private bus through Belgium, Germany, and France, and are to take a week-end trip to Switzerland. Workshop participants will confer with persons prominent in government, social service, and public education in the countries to be visited. Special lectures and seminars with national leaders are being arranged to give the teachers a broader background for instruction in world affairs and international relations. The group will sail June 29 aboard the Cunard Line's SS *Georgic* and will return to New York on August 20. All accommodations are arranged by the University. The total cost to individual participants, including fees for the maximum number of credits, is estimated at \$895. Teachers who are interested should act promptly. Because cabin space for ocean travel is scarce during July and August, the University has been forced to limit the enrollment of the workshop to 60 persons. Candidates will be considered in the order in which applications are received. Special attention will be given to professional background and personal qualifications. Applications and requests for further information should be made to Dr. Christian O. Arndt at the School of Education, New York University, Washington Square East, New York 3, New York.

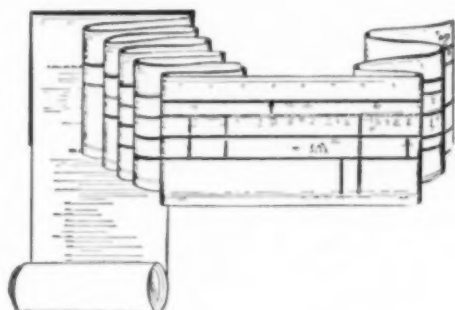
THIS YEAR'S FULBRIGHTERS—The U. S. Department of State reports that this year 1,437 Americans from 48 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have received Fulbright Awards to study, teach, or conduct research in 24 countries of Europe and the Near and Far East under the State Department's International Educational Exchange Program.—*News Bulletin*, December, 1953. Institute of International Education.

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SOMETHING NEW IN FILM PUBLICATIONS—Something new in the line of film publications has been introduced this season by the Film Council of America. It is the biweekly newspaper *Rushes*. Five issues have already been published since *Rushes* made its appearance on October 12. *Rushes* is addressed to the cross-section of workers in the educational and commercial film world as well as film sponsors, users, distributors, adult educators, equipment manufacturers, and the like. In its first issue, *Rushes* had this to say about its layout: "This format is not a gimmick. It is a work print, to be clipped, to be marked up, to be routed in part or whole, or to be tacked up on your own bulletin board. Since there is no copy on the reverse side, you are free to use it in a number of ways. 'Use it'—that's the key phrase. Don't file it—unless you file newspapers!"

EISENHOWER EXCHANGE FELLOWSHIP—On October 13, 1953, in the Arena at Hershey, Pennsylvania, as part of President Eisenhower's birthday celebration, Mr. Philip T. Sharples, a prominent industrialist, presented the President with a birthday gift—the Eisenhower Exchange Fellowships. The parchment scroll which was presented explained that a non-profit philanthropic organization had been incorporated under the laws of Pennsylvania. The plan, designed as a practical means to foster understanding between the United States and other nations, will enable outstanding potential leaders to study abroad in the field of their countries' greatest need.

According to present plans there will be twenty Eisenhower Fellowships awarded the first year (1954-55); fourteen will bring foreigners to the United States; six will take Americans to foreign countries. Approximately \$175,000 is available to finance these twenty fellowships. It is hoped that the number of fellowships will be increased to seventy-five or eighty the second and subsequent years at a cost of about \$700,000 annually. The nationals of other countries will come primarily from the so-called under-developed areas. Americans will be able to go to any country of their choice. Fellowship distribution amounts to foreign countries the first year will probably include three from Latin America, four from the Near East and Africa, three from South Asia, two from the Far East, and two from Europe.

It is expected that candidates will be chosen because of their practical achievement rather than for particular academic attainments. Preference will be given to candidates in the fields of government, communications, business, agriculture, and engineering. The age limit of 25 to 40 years was set to encourage applications from men and women who have already had considerable work experience. It is expected that the study plan for each individual will be custom made, and will include learning on the job and in the field, extensive interviews with leaders, and probably study at a college, university, or research institute.

The Institute of International Education, which is the "administrative affiliate" of the program, will assist in preparing the announcements of the program and application forms which will be distributed both here and abroad to interested groups and individuals. The deadline for receipt of applications is expected to be March 15, 1954.

According to present plans, all Eisenhower fellows will be selected by May 15, 1954, and the foreign recipients will be in this country by the middle of next September. Together with the American fellows, they will dine with President Eisenhower and the Board of Trustees in Washington before beginning their experiences as Eisenhower fellows.—*News Bulletin*, December, 1953, of the Institute of International Education.

AUDIO-VISUAL WORKSHOP FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS—By popular request, Purdue University's third annual Workshop in Audio-Visual Techniques for Teachers of Foreign Languages (Education 524) will be offered twice next summer: June 21-July 3 and July 12-24. Last summer, coming from 13 states and Canada, 33

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teachers enrolled, taxing the facilities and the staff. The dual offering in 1954 will reduce the size of each class and will facilitate the individual projects and conferences which form an essential part of the course. For complete information concerning these two 2-week sessions write to Purdue University, Department of Modern Languages, Lafayette, Indiana.

GIRL SCOUT CAMP POSITIONS—Hundreds of interesting summer jobs are available for teachers for the 1954 season in Girl Scout camps throughout the country. Because the Girl Scouts have always been pace-setters in the newest methods of camping, these jobs provide an opportunity to study first-hand the advanced techniques of a good camp program. Outstanding among these is the camper unit of self-government in which small groups of girls live, work, and plan their own program with the assistance of the leader. In addition, camp jobs offer a summer free from expense, plus full maintenance and salary.

For jobs as camp directors and assistant camp directors, applicants should be at least 25 years of age and 21 years of age respectively, and have had experience in camping and in administrative and supervisory work with groups and with the Girl Scout program. To qualify as a unit leader, experience in working with children as a teacher, camp counselor, or leader is necessary. There are also openings for waterfront directors (must hold a current Instructor's Certificate); program consultants (experience in a special field such as music, dramatics, nature, campcraft); and business managers (business training including typing and bookkeeping). With the exception of camp director positions, all applicants must be at least 21 years of age, have sympathy with the aims and philosophy of Girl Scouting, good health, an interest in and enjoyment of camping, an interest in and understanding of girls, and the ability to work well with others and to adapt to camp living.

Salaries are determined by the individual's experience, personal qualifications, and extent of training. Incidentals of the job such as laundry, traveling expenses, etc., may be paid depending upon the length of the camping season and location of the camp. All staff members participate in a basic pre-camp training session of about five days. Interested persons can contact their local Girl Scout council office, or have their name referred to the Girl Scout national branch office nearest them by writing to Miss Fanchon Hamilton, Personnel Department, Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 155 East 44th Street, New York 17, New York.

AMERICA'S STAKE IN ASIA—The United States now has to concern itself with a Far East that is no longer distant and exotic and that represents now a vital strategic prize in the "cold war" between Communism and the Free World. The latest *Times* filmstrip, *America's Stake in Asia*, looks out America's other "front door" at the changing face of Asia, and surveys in 57 frames the stake in world peace, American security, freedom, trade, and amity that Americans have in the Pacific. It looks back to Marco Polo's travels and the traditional U. S. friendship for the Orient, surveys the changes that recent years have brought, and examines the current critical stage of the U. S. relations with Asia in a divided world.

The filmstrip is 35mm and is illustrated with photographs, cartoons, and maps that present the subject in clear, graphic terms. A teacher's discussion manual, with an introduction to the topic and additional data on each frame, accompanies the filmstrip. It is the fifth in the 1953-54 series of eight *New York Times* Filmstrips on Current Affairs. The entire series of eight filmstrips is available for \$15; individual filmstrips cost \$2.50 each. They are available from the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, Times Square, New York 36, New York.

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In a dynamic society with a dynamic educational system, the requirements of teachers for materials are constantly changing. As new issues arise, so does the need for new ideas and new tools. To keep pace with these changing needs, to keep its fingers on the pulse of educational advance, staff members of the Institute for American Democracy spend much time conferring with teachers, principals, and superintendents in the school systems throughout the country. Thus, a new pattern for co-operation has taken shape. Working together, the schools and such public service agencies as the Institute for American Democracy are providing the tools and the know-how for the education of informed, intelligent citizens—capable of applying their democratic heritage to the challenges of the 20th century.

A NEW FILM ON INFANTILE PARALYSIS—*Born in the White House* is a new 16mm. film of 26 minutes in length. It is furnished on free loan and is suitable for adult or high-school audiences. It is a documentary, tracing the progress of medical research in the conquest of disease with particular emphasis on developments in polio research and the history of man's fight against this disease. Schools interested in seeing the film for showing should make reservations three weeks in advance by writing the Division of Public Education, The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, New York. Also available is *New Fountains*, a one-act play written and produced by the American Theatre Wing Community Plays. This play requires no scenery and few props. Easily produced by amateur groups, it is suitable for presentation to adult or high-school audiences. This play about adolescents concerns a young girl who faces a crisis in her life following an attack of polio. The action, centering around home and school relationships, has universal appeal. Designed to help audiences gain new insight into the needs and problems of the physically disabled. For free scripts and discussion guide, write to the Division of Public Education at the above address.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY'S SELF STUDY—Dr. George D. Stoddard, former president of the University of Illinois, has accepted the chairmanship of the Directing Committee of New York University's Self Study, now being conducted under a grant of \$250,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. Dr. Stoddard will give full time to the Study for a seven-month period. The Study is a University-wide examination of educational services and activities, with a view to evolving a long-range educational program.

"The Directing Committee," said Dr. David D. Henry, executive vice chancellor at NYU, "will review recommendations from the staff, from committees of the schools and colleges, and from other sources; define procedures and policies; approve consultants and other personnel assignments; appraise and direct Study activities; and be responsible for the final report." In the Study, attention will be given to inter-unit, inter-disciplinary, and



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community relationships of the University. Two guiding questions in the study will be: (1) How can a large, complex, urban university best serve the individual student, both within and outside the classroom and (2) How can such a university best serve its community in research, adult education, and civic enterprise? Procedurally, each division of the University will appoint a liaison representative with the Office of Institutional Research and Educational Planning. Special studies also will be organized. Outside consultants and advisory committees will supplement University personnel.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA SUMMER CONFERENCE ON THE LANGUAGE ARTS—The annual summer conference on teaching the language arts will be held at the University of Minnesota Center for Continuation Study on June 28 through July 1, 1954. General sessions will alternate with study groups in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Guest speakers will include Dr. Donald Durrell, Professor of Education and Director of the Reading Clinic at Boston University; Dr. Hugh F. Seabury, Associate Professor of Speech at Iowa State University; Dr. Donald E. Bird of the Communications Division of Stephens College, who will discuss listening; and Dr. Fred G. Walcott of the Departments of English and Education, University of Michigan, whose theme will be writing.

Study groups for elementary, high-school, and college reading will be directed by Dr. Guy L. Bond of the University of Minnesota. Those for elementary- and high-school speech and dramatics will be directed by Dr. Donald K. Smith and Dr. Kenneth Graham of the University's Speech Department, those in listening by Dr. Ralph G. Nichols, and those in writing by Dr. Dora V. Smith, both of the University of Minnesota. Requests for registration materials should be sent to the Director, Center for Continuation Study, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota.

POSITIONS IN ALASKA INDIAN SCHOOLS FOR ELEMENTARY TEACHERS—The United States Civil Service Commission has announced a new elementary teacher examination for filling positions in Indian schools throughout the United States and in Alaska. The salary is \$3,410 a year. Appropriate education is required. No written test will be given. The maximum age limit is 50 years (waived for persons entitled to veteran preference). Students who expect to complete all the required courses within 90 days of the date of filing applications may apply. Full information regarding the examination, including instructions on how to apply, may be obtained at many post offices throughout the country or from the U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington 25, D. C.

GIRL SCOUT WEEK: GIRL SCOUT 1954 BIRTHDAY—Girl Scout Week, formerly observed in October, will be celebrated hereafter in March and will take place during the week which includes March 12, the anniversary of the founding of Girl Scouting in the United States. This change in date was recommended by the 32nd Girl Scout National Convention in October, 1953. In 1954, therefore, Girl Scout Week opens with Girl Scout Sunday, March 7, and continues through Saturday, March 13. For girls of Jewish faith, it starts on March 6, designated as Girl Scout Sabbath. March 12 will mark the 42nd anniversary of the day in 1912, when the late Juliette Gordon Low called together a group of girls in Savannah, Georgia, to hear about the Girl Guide movement in England. Twelve of the girls formed the first Girl Scout troop in the United States. From this little band has grown the two-million member national Girl Scout organization, which is part of the thirty-two-nation World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts.

Theme for the 42nd Girl Scout Birthday and Girl Scout Week is "Know your neighbors—know your nation." Local Girl Scout councils are planning to demonstrate this theme through such events as visits to historic sites or to new projects under construction, pro-

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grams designed to recognize new citizens in the community, and special displays and exhibits. One of the activities scheduled for Girl Scout week is an in-gathering of Kits for Korea, the current Girl Scout world friendship project. Kits for Korea are small draw-string bags which troops all over the country are making and filling with small necessities—soap, toothbrush, dentifrice, sewing materials, and safety pins. The Kits will be turned over to the American Relief for Korea for distribution to Korean children.

In many communities, the Seven Service Days of Girl Scout Week will be marked by activities dramatizing the interests and achievements of Scouts, starting with *Sunday*, when girls and their leaders, in uniforms, will attend religious services in their own houses of worship, and continuing through *Monday, March 8*, designated as Homemaking Day; *Tuesday, March 9*, celebrated as Citizenship Day; *Wednesday, March 10*, observed as Health and Safety Day; *Thursday, March 11*, to be marked as International Friendship Day; *Friday, March 12*, both the 42nd birthday of Girl Scouting and Arts and Crafts Day; and ending on *Saturday, March 13*, which is Out-of-Doors Day.

A CONTEST FOR TEACHERS—"Why I Teach," a contest for teachers, to encourage good teachers to remain in the teaching profession, and eligible young people to enter it, is again being sponsored by the American Legion Auxiliary. The contest opened November 1, 1953, and closes at midnight May 1, 1954. Mrs. Carl W. Zeller of Gibsonburg, Ohio, National Security Chairman of the American Legion Auxiliary, in announcing plans for the contest which was held last year and is being continued as part of the national security program of the Auxiliary, said that contestants must have completed five years of teaching by June 1, 1954, and that each entry must be accompanied by a signed statement of release, giving the American Legion Auxiliary permission to use the entry. The subject of this year's contest is, "The purposes and goals of a teacher in a free America." The form of the essay must be an open letter to a high-school graduate, and the entry may not exceed 300 words, not be less than 100.

Both Divisional and National awards will be given. The Divisional awards will consist of a \$50 U. S. savings bond, to be given to the contestant having the winning entry in each of the five Divisions. The National award will consist of a \$250 U. S. savings bond, and will go to one of the five Divisional winning contestants. In addition, each Department may give a Department award if it desires. The judges will be selected from an outstanding group of citizens. Each Department, or state, has fixed midnight of May 1, 1954, as the deadline for the state entries. The winning entry will then be forwarded to the Divisional national security chairman by June 15, 1954, and the winning entry in each Division should be forwarded to the national vice-chairman of the National Security Committee, Mrs. Lamont Seals, Homer, Louisiana, by June 25, 1954.

NEW FILMS FROM BRITAIN—For the convenience of the many users of British Information Services films, BIS presents a *Round Up* of films in the form of a supplement to its standard *Catalogue of Films from Britain*. It contains not only the releases since the catalogue was published but also announcements of films to come and news of films of special interest. This publication, *Round Up*, replaces *Films of The Month* and will be followed by other issues similar in type. This new *Round Up* and subsequent issues will help persons in their selection of the best in 16mm films whether they wish them for classroom use, study and discussion groups, as an accompaniment to lectures, or merely for a combination of information and entertainment. To be placed on the mailing list, write to: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, New York.

JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION—The Texas Association of Secondary-School Principals and the Texas Study of Secondary Education publish a quarterly journal entitled *Texas Journal of Secondary Education*. The magazine is devoted to secondary

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education, as indicated in its title. The Fall, 1953, issue contains the following articles: "Articulation of the Secondary School and College," "Teachers' Living Costs, Rural and Urban," "Determination of the Curriculum in English," "Community Recreation," "Topographical Drawing," and "Secondary-School Drop-outs, with Special Reference to Spanish-Speaking Youth in Texas." This magazine is available at a subscription rate of \$1 per year (four issues) or 35 cents per copy. For more complete information about this publication, write to the editor, James W. Reynolds, 321 Sutton Hall, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

NATIONAL SURVEY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS—The Associated Public School Systems, an affiliate of the Institute of Administrative Research of Teachers College, Columbia University in New York City, is conducting a survey of education in 200 cities and towns in 37 states. These communities are members of the Associated Public School Systems. They represent 3,500 schools with an enrollment of approximately three million pupils. This survey, aided by an initial grant of \$60,000, will give emphasis to the quality of education. Dr. Paul R. Mort, General Secretary of the Associated Public School Systems, states that the survey will be a diagnostic self-study by which each participating community will be able to see how it compares with the other communities in this 200 group. The study has been set up in two phases. The first phase will attempt to evaluate basic factors such as parent conferences, public participation in making school budgets, courses in safety, books and films used, music and art, and quality of school reference material. The other phase will analyze the schools' relationship to the community.

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